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THE
MONTHLY REVIEW;
OR
LITERARY JOURNAL,
ENLARGED:

From May to August, *inclusive.*

M,DCCCI.

With an APPENDIX.

"Si laudaveris, parcus; si culpaveris, nimius fuisse dicaris: quamvis illud plenissimè, hoc restrictissimè feceris. Sed hæc nos non retardant." Plin.

VOLUME XXXV.

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THE

MONTHLY REVIEW

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TABLE

OF THE

TITLES, AUTHORS' NAMES, &c. of the Publications reviewed in this Volume.

N. B. For REMARKABLE PASSAGES in the *Criticisms* and *Extracts*, see the INDEX, at the End of the Volume.

☞ For the Names, also, of the Authors of new Dissertations, or other curious Papers, published in the MEMOIRS and TRANSACTIONS of the Scientific ACADEMIES at Home or on the Continent, and also for the Titles of those Dissertations, &c. of which Accounts are given in the Review,—see the *Index*, printed at the End of each Volume.

A

ABRIDGEMENTS. See *Gaultier.*
Account of the Irides of the Sun, &c. Page 279
Acid, nitrous. See *Beddoes.*
Acre, Siege of, a Poem, 175
Address to Young People, 205
——— to the Volunteers, 438
Admiralty, Decisions in, 431
Adonia, 427
Adultery. See *Divorces.*
Africa, Travels in, 214. 337
Agriculture. See *Tuke.*
Aikin's Letters to his Son, Vol. II. 151
Alfred, a Poem, 1
Algebra, Elements of, 470
Alps, Lepontine, Travels through, 166
America, Travels in, 9. 113
Anacreon, Odes of, 404
Annuities. See *Witby.*
Anquetil's Summary of Universal History, 293
Antiquities. See *Townley.*
Aphorisms on Education, 96
Argument for the Christian Religion, 88
Astronomy. See *Vince.*
Atterbury's Miscellaneous Works, 103

B

Bampton Lectures for 1800, 381
Bankrupt Law. See *Cullen.*
Barrington's Voyage, Sequel to, 218
Barrow's Travels in Southern Africa, 337
Barry's Narrative of his Adventures, 215
Beard on the Law of Imprisonment for Debt, 432
Beatson's View of the War with Tippoo, 225
Beaufort's Daughter of Adoption, 356
Beaumont's Travels through the Lepontine Alps, 166
Beddoes's Communications on Nitrous Acid, 137
Belligerent Powers. See *Schlegel, Croke, Marriott, Ward, Robinson.*
Belsham's Sermon on Free Inquiry, 222
———'s Remarks on Marsh, 333
———'s Reply to Marsh's Vindication, ib.
Bere's Controversy with Mrs. More, 214, 215. 445, 446
——'s Appeal to the Public, 445
——, Letter to, 446
Bevan on Misrepresentations of the Quakers, 207

CONTENTS.

'e, compendious, Dictionary of, 432
'ake' Summer's Eve, 320
——'s Virginia, 321
:kstone's Reports, 3d Edition, 432
gdon Controversy, 446
——. See *Bere.*
ir on the Venereal Disease, Part II. 298
nc de Volx on the Causes of Revolutions. 492
nchard—précis hist. de la vie de Pie VI. 216
ndford, Lord. See *Report.*
amire on the Poor Laws, 328
den's Rainy Day, 436
k's Letter to Bere, 446
ker's Fast Sermon, 221
d. See *Surr*
tish Oak, a Poem, 211
to's United, 211
der's Village Sermons, 93
ke's (Mrs.) Elliott, a Novel, 332
n on the Law of Marine Insurances, 204
ns. See *Kentish.*
field's Sermon at Scarboro', 111

C

Considerations on the State of Europe, 212
———— on the Right of the Clergy to a Seat in Parliament, 437
Consolato del Mari, Chaps. 273 and 287, translated, 328
Conspiracy of Gowrie, 321
Const's Edition of the Poor Laws, 330
Contraband. See *Ward.*
Conversations for Children, 425
Conveyancing. See *M'Nayr.*
Convivialia et Saltatoria, 210
Coronæ of the Sun, &c. Account of, 279
Correspondence relative to the 4th Dragoons, 219
*** CORRESPONDENCE *with the Reviewers*, 112. 224. 336. 448
Cottle's Alfred, a Poem, 1
Cowley's (Mrs.) Siege of Acre, 175
Crabb's Introduction to French, 313
Croke's Remarks on Schlegel on Neutral Vessels, 179
Crossman, Dr. See *Bere.*
Cullen on the Bankrupt Law, 96

D

Damberger's Travels in Africa,

England, Letters from, 354
Epidemics, Dissertation on, 317
Erratics. 387
Essay on Christianity, 205
Evangelia. See *White*.
Evans's Address to young People, 205
Eves's (Mrs.) Grammatical Plaything. 202
Europe, State of, Considerations on, 212
Experiments with the Metallic Tractors, 418

F

Fabius, Letters of, 438
Farms. See *Lewis*.
Fate of Bertha, 327
Father and Daughter, 163
Finances. See *Morgan*. See *Remarks*.
Fleurieu's Account of Marchand's Voyage, 496
Fox's Speech, 25th March, 99
Francklin's Remarks on Troy, 284
French, History of their Establishment in Gaul, 460
——, Directory, history of, 476
——, Language. See *Crabb*. See *Henry*.
——, Republic, Sketches of, 82
Frend. See *Surr*.

G

Game, Statutes relative to, View of, 431
Gaul, History of the Establishment of the French in, 460
Gaultier's Conversations for Children, 425
———'s Method of making Abridgements, 426
Germany, Statistical View of, 466
Girard on Tombs, 513
Gough's Sepulchral Monuments, Vol. II. 49
Graglia's Castle of Eridan, 333
Grammar of the Malay Tongue, 424
Grammatical Play-thing, 202
Grant's Sermons, 434
Grose's Sermons, 434

H

Hackney Coach Guide, 104
Hager's Picture of Palermo, 67
Halloran—*Lachrymæ Hibernicæ*, 108
Hamel's World in Miniature, 105
Hamilton, Sir W. Engravings from Greek Vases, Vol. III. 542
Hay's Admiralty Decisions, 431
Haygarth on the Imagination, 420
Helme's (Mrs.) Instructive Rambles, 313
Henault's History of the Establishment of the French in Gaul, 460
Henry's Guide to the French, 314
Herboldt. See *Experiments*.
Heron's History of Scotland, 276
Heslop on Arable and Grass Lands, 90
Hindley's Persian Lyrics, 122
History of the Campaigns, 246. 365
———, Universal, Summary of, 293
——— of the Executive Directory, 476
———, Ecclesiastical. See *Campbell*.
Hoeck's Statistical View of Germany, 466
Hogarth. See *Ireland*.
Holliday's British Oak, a Poem, 211
Hoole's Translation of Leeuwenhoeck, Parts II. and III. 287
Houlton's Wilmore Castle, 323
Hunter on recent Events, 441

I & J

Imagination. See *Haygarth*.
Inns of Court. See *Ireland*.
Inquiries into Leasehold Property, 431
Institute. See *Memoirs*.
Instructive Rambles in London, 313
Insurances, Marine. See *Burn*.
Ireland, Catholics of. See *Catholics*.
Ireland's Illustrations of Hogarth, Vol. II. 142
———'s Views of Inns of Court, 148
Irides. See *Account*.
Juliania, 426

K

Kemble's Point of Honour, 323
Kendal's Stories of Senex, 426
Kentish's 2d Essay on Burns, 310

L

Lachrymæ Hibernicæ, 108
La Croix's Elements of Algebra, 470
La Harpe's Lectures at the Lycæum, Vol. III. 480
Land, Arable and Grass, Comparative Statement of, 90
——, See *Marshall*.
Latin Scholar's Guide, 98
Latocnaye's Rambles in Sweden and Norway, 515
Lavater's Looking Glass, 217
Leasehold Property, Inquiries into, 431
Leeuwenhoeck. See *Hoole*.

Leland's

Leland's Reflections, 216
Letter to Mr. Percival, 99
Letters of a Solitary Wanderer, 332
——— of Fabius, 438
——— from a Father to his Son. See *Aikin*.
Lewis on uniting Farms, 198
Liancourt, Duke de, Travels in America, 9. 113
Life of **********, Esq. 215
Life, a Comedy, 323
Littlejohn's Mistake, a Novel, 331
Logic, Praxis of, 197
Longevity. See *Easton*.
London, Satirical View of, 218
Lucas's Fate of Bertha, 327
Lue Venerea. See *Pearson*.
Luke's Sermons, 24th August, and 22d November, 447
Lundie's Fast Sermon, 221
Lycæum. See *La Harpe*.

M

Maclaurin's Works, 102
Maclean on the Plague, 317
M'Nayr on English Conveyancing, 331
Malay Grammar, 424
Marchand's Voyage round the World,
Musæus's Physiognomical Travels, 361

N

Narrative of Mr. Barry, 215
Natural History. See *Mavor*.
Neutral Vessels. See *Schlegel*, *Croke*, *Marriott*, *Ward*, *Robinson*.
New Observations on Transparent Bodies, 413
Norway. See *Latocnaye*.
Nuptiæ Sacræ, 91

O

Olive's Sermon at Merton, 111
Opie's (Mrs.) Father and Daughter, 163
Orchestikos—Poems, 210
Oriental Geography, 28
Orton's and Stonhouse's Letters, 132
Ouseley's Oriental Geography, 28

P

Palermo, Picture of, 67
Paris, New Picture of, 384
——, National Institute, Memoirs of,

Predictions. See *Dobbs.*
Pride of Birth, a Satire, 44
Prophecies. See *Zouch.* See *Dobbs.*
Proposal in Behalf of married Poor, 213
Prosser's Fast Sermon, 221
Punishments of China, 24

Q

Quakers. See *Bevan.* See *Tuke.*

R

Rainy Day, 436
Rambles in Sweden and Norway, 515
Reader. See *Murray.*
Reflections. See *Leland.*
——— on recent Events, 441
Reform, Parliamentary, Thoughts on, 101
Religion, present State of, Considerations on, 209
——. See *Vernet.*
——, Power of, 445
Remarks on the Situation of the Poor, 439
—— on Morgan on Finance, 442
Report of the City Institution for the Poor, 100
—— of the Cause, Sturt *v.* Lord Blandford, 327
Reports of the Society for the Poor, Vol. II. 273
Researches, Chemical and Philosophical, 33
Revolutions. See *Blanc de Volx.*
Reynolds's Life, a Comedy, 323
Ribchester, Antiquities at, 238
Richards's (Wm.) Welsh Dictionary, 314
——— (Geo.) Bampton Sermons, 381
Richardson's Short-hand, 104
Robert the Brave, History of, 543
Roberts on the Statutes, 13 & 17 Eliz. 202
Robinson's (Mrs.) Translation of Hager's Picture of Palermo, 67
——'s (Thomas) Reasons for the Belief of a Christian, 209
——'s (Dr.) Translation of the *Consolato del Mari*, 328
——'s *Collectanea Maritima*, 329
Rochefoucault Liancourt's Travels in America, 9. 113
Roland, Madame, Works of, 190
Rome, Church of, Caution against, 93
——, Ancient and Modern, described, 398
Rumford, Count, Poetical Epistle to, 435

S

Salmon's Description of Rome, 398
Sanderson's Poems, 318
Satirical View of London, 218
Saussure, M. Memoirs of his Life and Writings, 449
Scandinavians, a Poem, 509
Scattered Thoughts, 215
Sceptic, 217
Schlegel on Neutral Vessels, 179
——. See *Croke.*
School for Fashion, 430
School-room-party, 99
Schrodter, the Shoemaker, &c. 214
Scotland, History of, 276
Scott's Signs of the Times, 212
Secret Memoirs of the Court of Petersburgh, 59
Senebier's Memoir on the Life and Writings of Saussure, 449
Sepulchral Monuments, Vol. II. 49
Sequel to Barrington's Voyage, 218
Sermons, collective. See *Burder*, *Wrangham*, *Richards*, *Grose*, *Grant.*
——, Single, 111, 220—223, 336, 447
Shoemaker Schrodter, &c. 214
Short-hand. New System of, 104
Sibbit on Divorces, 99
Signs of the Times, 212
Sketches of the French Republic, 82
Smith's (Mrs.) Letters of a Solitary Wanderer, 332
Statement relative to Mrs. More's Schools, 446
Stedman, Mr. Letters to, 132
Step-mother, a Tragedy, 325
Stewart's Britons united, 211
Stonhouse's Letters, 132
Stories of Senex, 426
Sturt's Report of his Cause, 327
Summer's Eve, a Poem, 320
Sun, Moon, &c. Account of their Irides, 279
Surr's Refutation of Boyd and Frend, 440
Sweden. See *Latocnaye.*

T

Tatham's History of Tobacco, 376
Teacher's Assistant, 315
Temple, Earl, his Speech, 335
Thames. See *Colquhoun.*
Thicknesse's (Mrs.) School for Fashion, 430

Thoughts

CONTENTS.

Thoughts on Parliamentary Reform, 201
Tippoo Sultaun, View of the War with, 225
Tischbein's Account of Engravings on Greek Vases, Vol. III, 542
Tobacco. See *Tatham*.
Tocquot's Latin Scholar's Guide, 98
Tombs. See *Girard*.
Townley on Antiquities at Ribchester. 238
Townsend's Sermon, 222
Townshend's general Opinions of Ministers, 95
Tractors. Metallic. See *Experiments*. See *Perkins*.
Transparent Bodies, Observations on, 413
Travels. See *Liancourt*, *Beaumont*, *Damberger*, *Barrow*, *Musæus*, *Meister*, *Latocnaye*.
Tressan, Count de, History of Robert the Brave, 543
Trigonometry. See *Vince*.
Troy. See *Morritt*. See *Francklin*.
Tuke's (John) Agriculture of Yorkshire, 126
—— (Henry) on the Faith of the Quakers, 208
Turner's Sermon, 335

V and U

Vaccination. See *Dunning*.
Vale of Trent, 110
Vases, Greek. See *Hamilton*.
Venereal Disease. See *Blair*. See *Pearson*.
Vernal Walk, 109
Vernet's Arguments for the Christian Religion, 88
View of the Statutes relative to Game, 431
Village Sermons, 93
Vince's System of Astronomy, Vol. II. 72
——'s Treatise on Trigonometry, 409
Virginia, a Tragedy, 321
Unio, sive *Lamentatio Hibernica*, 107
Volunteers. Address to. 438
Volx, *Blanc de*, on Revolutions, 492
Voyage round the World. See *Marchand*.
Uvedale's Sermon, 336

W

Walker's Teacher's Assistant, 315
Wansey on Poor Houses, 439
Ward on the Rights of Belligerent Powers, and on Contraband, 307
Welsh Language, Dictionary of, 314
Western Mail, 219
White—*quatuor Evangelia Græce*, 66
Whitmore's Sermon, 447
Williams, Miss, Sketches of the French Republic, 82
Wilmore Castle, 323
Winchester, Bishop of, his Fast Sermon, 221
Wilby on the Law of Annuities, 203
Wood on Perspective, 46
Wood's Sermon on Mr. Cappe, 223
Wool See *Parry*.
World in Miniature, 105
Wrangham's Sermons, 206

Y

Yorkshire, Agriculture of, 126
Youth's Infallible Instructor, 200

Z

Zouch on the Prophecies, 204

ERRATA in Vol. XXXV.

Page 210. l. 12. from bott. after '*mentions*,' insert *that*.
212. l. 17. from bott. dele the comma after '*instead*.'
217. l. 20. dele the comma after '*will*.'
286. note, for σει, read σευ.
372. l. 25. for '*cantonment*.—' r. *cantonments*.—
427. note, l. 2 and 3. for '*concilirate*, *elaxation*,' r. *conciliate*, *relaxation*.
443. l. 8. from bott. place a comma after '*Satire*.'

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

FOR MAY, 1801.

Art. I. *Alfred*, an Epic Poem, in Twenty-Four Books. By Joseph Cottle. 4to. pp. 454. 1l. 1s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1800.

During our perusal of this poem, we have frequently regretted the severity of the laws of Parnassus; which, being modelled on the performances of transcendant genius, are calculated to destroy the pretensions of moderate talents, in this highest species of poetry. When we found the present author, in his preface, attacking the machinery which is deemed necessary to the Epic, and professing to have introduced a more familiar and dramatic style into his work, we could not help wishing that he had intitled it an historical, a moral, a didactic, or any thing but an Epic poem.

The preface contains several opinions to which we cannot assent; and we must particularly notice the following passage:

> 'The dramatic poet possesses one great advantage over the epic, from having it in his power, by a well-constructed plot, to conceal the final event, and, by the unexpected transition of incidents, to arrest and sustain the attention. The writer of an epic poem, on the contrary, by his exordium, declares the catastrophe: and although this part were to be omitted, yet, the established rule of success in the termination, would leave the reader in no doubt respecting that issue, which, 'till the proper moment arrives, ought not even to be suspected. There is no way of effectually counteracting this evil, but it may be lessened, in some measure, by a recurrence to the dramatic liberty, and the forming of a secondary plot, where the result cannot so well be anticipated, and where the subordinate interest, from possessing novelty, may add vigor to the attention by occasionally relieving it.'

This doctrine may be well calculated for works which will bear only one reading, but it stands in direct opposition to the feelings with which we peruse the great Epic writers. Our pleasure increases as we become familiar with the beauties of Homer, Virgil, and Milton. Curiosity is a subordinate and trifling sensation, to which they disdained attention. According to Mr. Cottle's canons of criticism, Ariosto would be a greater poet than the Masters of the Epic; for he invented the ingenious method of beginning a story in one canto, *to be concluded* in a subsequent one; which has been so successfully followed by the novelists of our periodical publications.—Mr. Cottle has entirely overlooked the opinions of the best critics, in hastily supposing that the machinery alone is the support of an Epic poem. The representation of manners and passions has ever been allowed to constitute its chief merit; and to this end the machinery has been made subservient; for it has consisted of the popular superstitions of the time. The mythology of Homer was the religion of his country; even Virgil, who lived in a sceptical age, did not exceed the historical marvels with which Livy amused a subsequent race; and our own Milton, in nothing inferior to either of these poets, blended, with genuine enthusiasm, the sanctity of his creed with the fervour of his genius. The supernatural personages in those works, however, are embodied before us; we see and hear them; and we are not permitted, by the force of the illusion, either to doubt or to reason, while the immortals speak in language worthy of their attributes. If more recent writers have failed in equally interesting their readers, the deficiency must not be imputed to the nature of the art, but to the inferiority of the artist.—We do not intend, by these observations, to refer to the Girusalemme, nor to the Lusiad; which, though possessing great beauties, cannot be regarded as perfect models, because their machinery (especially that of the latter) is a mixture of mythology with christianity. The works of Tasso and Camöens were deficient in judgment, not in strength of genius.

Mr. Cottle has thought it proper to ornament his poem with a specimen of the Northern mythology: but he has confined this machinery to the first book, which relates to the Danish preparations for the invasion of Britain, and he has dropped it at the commencement of the action. The remaining part of his work, therefore, is a plain *tale*; not highly elevated above prose, either by imagery or versification. In this undertaking, we see the bad consequences resulting from some hasty opinions lately promulgated, respecting simplicity of diction. We have opposed the recent attempts to despoil poetry of her proper language; and we regret that we are again called to assert the distinction between simplicity and meanness. The charms of a fine thought, like those of a beautiful person, are most touching when they are least ornamented: but the nakedness of a homely figure is disgusting.—

The rage for poetical innovation forces us to inculcate these trite yet necessary precepts.

We shall now give a short view of Mr. Cottle's fable.

Ivar, the son of Regner Lodbrog, King of Denmark, consults a sorceress previously to his invasion of Britain, and in her cave he is terrified by the goblins of the Northern nations. As it is in this book only that an attempt at poetical imagery is made, we shall present the reader with a specimen of the terrible and the sublime of Mr. Cottle:

' The spot on which he stood,
Was the rude base of a stupendous rock,
Whose summit, midnight hid; whilst here and there
The fatal hemlock started, and the roots
Of living mandrake. " Are we not come near?"
Cried Ivar; " these most hideous shapes and things,
It needeth to be one like thee to meet
Unterrified." They both in silence march'd.
The torches bright, high in the rifted crag,
Moved on by hand unseen; 'till to a vault
Of huge extent and darkness—tenfold more
Than earthly, both arrived; when all the lamps
Blended their fires, and, as one torch, approach'd
The Night-hag, who her skinny hand upheld,
And, having seiz'd it, bent before the cave,
And mutter'd unintelligible words,
And necromantic airs that made the place
Ring like contending thunders.
" Now prepare,"
Solemn she cried, " to tread these chambers, hid
In night eternal, which no mortal foot
Hath e'er profaned, but, with the special grace
Of her who dwells beneath, our potent Queen."
The Hag proceeded. Doubtful stood the Prince
Whether to follow, or that instant rush—
He knew not where, but, mindful of his name,
Boldly he trod her footsteps.
On they moved
Through caverns intricate, and lofty vaults,
Where bats and screech-owls and the carrion-crow
Had their safe dwelling; ever flitting by,
Or sending sounds, reverberated far
O'er all the black domain, that made the light
Half conscious of obtrusion. To the mouth
Of a deep pit they came. Fearless the Hag
Leap'd downward half her length, standing secure
Upon a jutting stone that overhung
Th' abyss, yawning beneath: when, at her call,
From every secret crevice, issued fast
Unnumber'd vipers! round the rocky sides,
As by mechanic impulse each appear'd,

Ranged in due order, piercing the hard crag
With fangs, monstrous, and keen, and down they hang,
Coiling, when thus the Hag: "Young Prince, descend!
The steps are distant and impassable,
But by one only means: yon beings grasp,
And with their aid, dauntless proceed!"
The Prince
Leap'd where the Hag had stood, and when to go
Another step, he touch'd the slimy snakes,
His hands recoil'd, and, for a moment, fear
Shot through his blood. The Hag look'd up and cried.
"Doth IVAR shake? think of thy Father's fame,
And journey on unterrified." He now
Beheld her pass; behind he look'd and saw
Impenetrable midnight, and before,
A gulf of depth unknown, whose mouth sent forth
Murmurs and wailing sounds. The single torch
Descended slow, whilst from beneath was heard
The same unceasing call, faint and more faint,
"Dauntless, proceed!" It was no time for thought,
When, grasping hard the scaly snakes, he sprang
From broken step to step, from rock to rock,
And soon his guide o'ertook, who downward still

He plung'd into the flood! no boat was there!
Instant the Hag, her hand, stretch'd and uprais'd
The struggling Prince, and on firm land again
He stands, unknowing how. Ivar look'd round!
Once more he sees his guide, when thus she spake.
" This stream is Gioll! through the infernal worlds
Rolling his dark tide, whom no ray of heaven
Hath ever lighted on, or venturous being
Touch'd and survived, save thou, and such as thou,
Favor'd of spirits kind. The waster Death,
When tired of dogging his three ministers,
Famine, and War, and Pestilence, here hastes
And, plunging in this stream, again revives
His appetite for slaughter.
Now behold
These unexplored domains." She scarce had said,
When two huge doors of adamant flew wide,
And to his view displayed the secret vault
Where divination dwelt.
Spacious it was,
And in the centre stood a cauldron. Fires,
Crimson and purple, streaming upward, spread
Throughout the scene a lustre, blazing now,
Now half extinguished, though the chill air blew
And all was damp and dreary. To the roof
That frown'd new terrors, looking up, he saw
A Raven—with no Raven's eye! and mark'd
Unsightly shrubs and tapering roots hang down,
Wolfsbane and Deadly-night-shade, thick o'erspread
With living things, abhorrent, by whose aid,
Or heart, or liver, fibre, or thin scale,
The infernal powers prepared their spells, and made
Chains for unconscious mortals. Whilst his breath
Labour'd with fear, the guiding Hag exclaim'd,—
" Now must I leave thee! Yonder view the spot
Where our great Mother lies." The Prince turn'd round
To claim her further service, but her form,
Unknowing how, had vanished, and he stood,
Trembling amid the horrid solitude.
' Round him he gazed, expectant of all harm,
Then, sudden, look'd aghast! A coffin, black,
Slow rising from the yawning sepulchre,
His sight arrested. As he earnest view'd,
He saw the Sorceress! In her narrow bed
Senseless she lay, oppress'd with death-like sleep
A pall she had, the snows of ages! Her
The Prince approach'd; and when he mark'd her face
Her still and livid visage, and her eye
That through the thin thin eye lid half appear'd
Back he recoil'd, in terror, but again

Drew nigh her coffin, and in tremulous tones
Chanted the runic song.
Slowly the Witch
Her form uprais'd, stiff with the caverns damp,
Half red, half blue, whilst venom'd drops distill'd
Upon her bare head, from the craggy roof,
Where fearful beings hung, till then unmark'd,—
Scorpion and Basilisk. When thus she spake,
"I hear the call! What mortal dares disturb
This silent mansion?" Stern she cast her eye—
Her black and shining eye on IVAR near,
And cried, "Who art thou?"

The witch then informs Ivar that he shall not return from his projected invasion.—On his re-ascension to earth, his sisters weave the standard of the fatal raven.

Alfred appears in the second book, merely to despair of resistance to the invaders. He dismisses his troops, and conducts his Queen and infant son to a wild heath.—In the IIId book he meets with a cripple, with whom he divides his provision, and leaves Alswitha and his child in the Abbey of Glastonbury.—Book IV. contains the story of Alfred in the neatherd's cottage, and the burning of the cakes is related at full length: but *quorsum hæc?* At length we hear of the Danes:—who are said to have destroyed Glastonbury Abbey, and to have murdered every person within the walls.—Book V. contains something more than the former: Alfred's child is discovered to have survived the slaughter, and is brought to the neatherd's cottage by Sigbert, a military monk, where Alfred recognizes it. He then discovers himself to Sigbert, and sets out to join his troops.—In Book VI. Sigbert goes 'to learn some tidings of the fallen Queen,' but is taken prisoner by the way. Never, surely, was a chapter so mis-employed, since paper was paper! Sigbert meets with the Queen, without knowing her; and finding her not so communicative of news as the other persons of the Epopœa, he is so angry as to appear almost inclined to beat her.—In Book VII. Alfred joins his army, and, by a singular stroke of military science, dismisses his Generals 'to arouse his subjects,' before he makes his attack on the enemy who was besieging Kenwith Castle.—The subsequent book is occupied by conversation between Alfred and a hermit; and afterward with Sigbert. The action goes on as slowly as foot can fall; and Sigbert seems to have imbibed the non-communicative power of the disguised Queen:

'ALFRED look'd up and said,
"Thou dost mistake me, SIGBERT! I can bear
All that thou hast to say. Now let me know

The worst! for not to know might try indeed
My resolution."
 SIGBERT spake: "Oh King
Pardon my failure! little have I learn'd
Of thy good Queen ALSWITHA." "Hast thou heard
Aught of her," cried the King. SIGBERT replied
"Something I have obtain'd. Astonish'd hear!
I have been made a prisoner! I have met
GUTHRUM the Danish chief, and but escaped
To bear a threat to thee!"
 "How now," replied
ALFRED uprising. "Dost thou mock thy King?
But if thy mind be serious, tell thy tale!
And tho' I speak to thee, answer me not
'Till thou hast ended."

Alfred now discovers, by the jewels which Alswitha sent by Sigbert, that the Queen is alive, but that she remains a captive in the hands of General *Guthrum*.—Book IX. also passes in conversation.—The next chapter contains an account of the burning of the Danish fleet, which the invaders had, very kindly, left under the protection of their *women*.—In Book XI. the garrison of Kenwith escapes through the enemy's camp, and joins the King. This chapter is filled, as usual, with the news of the day.—In Book XII. the Danes appear, attack the deserted castle, and are obliged to satiate their vengeance by killing an old blind *hound*, which had been unable to follow the garrison. The plot now thickens; for Ivar and Hubba put to death their prisoner, Ella, King of Northumberland; after which, they receive intelligence of the destruction of their fleet. Ivar very judiciously says, 'I do not like this news.' Hubba and Guthrum then quarrel, and are with difficulty prevented from fighting:

"Which brings us to
The middle of our song *."

Book XIII. is occupied with Alfred's *determination* to visit the Danish camp in the dress of a harper; and, in the following chapter, the poet has given an ingenious turn to the conduct of Alfred in the enemy's camp, by representing him as counterfeiting a degree of lunacy. He sees, and is recognized by Alswitha.—In Book XV. Hubba demands Alswitha for the purpose of sacrificing her: when another quarrel takes place between him and Guthrum.—Book XVI. The Danish chieftains are now assembled, to decide the fate of Alswitha; and she is saved by the reluctant voice of Ivar, who was prohibited by the oracle from shedding the blood of defenceless persons.—

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* John Gilpin.

The XVIIth book is crouded with incidents. Alfred returns to his camp, but finds time to preach a long sermon to Sigbert by the way, and to kill a wolf. He then leads his forces against the enemy, and the rest of the book is consumed in a parley. Book XVIII. contains the beginning of the battle. Ivar and Hubba quarrel, while the Saxon army is advancing. This contention occupies nearly the whole book; and the battle is described in these thirteen concluding lines:

> ' Swift down the hill they rush, and in the plain
> Meet the bold Saxon! See! the fight begins!
> The battle rages! sword with sword hath met!
> And hark the terrors of the sounding shields
> That like two sheets of ice, meet, and through Heaven
> Send their loud dissonance and horrid crash!
> ' The hoary beard of some Norwegian crag,
> High in the elements, that feels the blast
> Shake its grey lock, which to the subject earth,
> At length rolls headlong, spreading as it rolls,
> One wide destruction, well displays the course
> Of ALFRED's sword, as through the Danish ranks
> It breaks its way – strewing the plain with death.'

We must confess our inability to understand this simile of the 'Norwegian Crag.'

braces Christianity, to which he had been almost converted by the Queen during her captivity.—Alfred, now having no other business on his hands, dreams of a long sermon from his guardian angel, which is contained in Book XXIII.; and the next and final chapter describes the baptism of Guthrum, with thirty of his followers, and the dismission of Alfred's troops.

We are sorry that we cannot characterize the style and versification of this poem, in higher terms than those in which we have treated of its conduct. The greater part of it is really written in measured prose, which is void of every requisite for sublime poetry: but the modesty and diffidence with which the author himself speaks of his performance, in his preface, would have induced us to refrain from all decided censure, had the work been more insignificant in its nature and extent.—With Mr. Cottle we are totally unacquainted: but his book manifests strong evidences of a good and pious disposition. To produce a successful Epic poem, however, other talents are requisite. He may be "an excellent neighbour, and a good bowler, but for Alexander !——*" Alas!

ART. II. *Travels through the United States of North America, the Country of the Iroquois, and Upper Canada,* in the Years 1795, 1796, and 1797; with an authentic Account of Lower Canada. By the Duke de la Rochefoucault Liancourt. 4to. 2 Vols. 2l. 14s. Boards. Phillips, &c. 1799.

THE notice due from us to these travels has been delayed, by unavoidable circumstances which it is not necessary to state, beyond the time which has generally been prescribed for works of equal importance: but we now turn our attention to them with interest, because the Duke de la Rochefoucault Liancourt has the merit of being one of those whose sole motive in travelling was to acquire information. His original intention, however, he says was to confine the fruits of his inquiries 'within the circle of his friends:' but he afterward submitted to the advice of those who were of opinion that the publication would be of 'general advantage.' In thus complying with the judgment of his friends, he would have acted wisely, perhaps, if, instead of the whole, he had limited his communications to a selection of such parts of his journal as were really calculated to promote general benefit. We mean not to be so rigid as to recommend the exclusion of entertaining anecdotes or opinions from works of more solid utility: but they should not be such as are in their nature likely to give pain to

indivia dispute between the States of Pennsylvania and Connecticut concerning the title to the estates contiguous to the lands of Asylum: but, notwithstanding unfavourable incidents, the settlement is here said to have 'attained to an uncommon degree of perfection, considering its infant state. Thirty houses, built in this town, are inhabited by families from St. Domingo, and from France, by French artisans, and even by Americans.' A list of the principal families settled there is added.

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* Love's labour lost.

The travellers were now joined by M. de Blacons and M. Du Petit Thouars, who engaged to accompany them in their tour to Canada. The latter of these gentlemen, an officer in the French navy, 'encouraged by the Constituent Assembly, and assisted by a subscription, embarked in an expedition in quest of M. de la Pérouse. He was detained on the coast of Brasil by the governor of the colony, Fernando de Noriguez, and sent with his crew to Portugal, where he was very ill treated by the Portuguese government, stripped of all his property, and only escaped farther persecution by fleeing to America.— His sociable, mild, yet truly original temper and character, are set off by a noble simplicity of manners.' We shall hereafter take occasion to add to this account of M. du Petit

'9. The longer the first juice is boiled, the better and finer the sugar will become.

'10. In order that the trees may continue productive, they require to be tapped with extraordinary care; i. e. the fissures must be neither too deep nor too wide, so that no water may settle in them, after the juice is extracted, and that the wood may close again in the space of a twelvemonth.

'11. During the time the juice is flowing out, which lasts about six weeks, and generally begins on the 1st of February, all the days on which it freezes or rains are lost, so that the number of days on which the business can be pursued to advantage is frequently, from these circumstances, much diminished.

'12. Maple sugar, however, is already obtained in sufficient quantities, to form a respectable article of trade, as during the above time two persons can frequently make from five to six hundred pounds of it, and this quantity will be increased in proportion to the number of workmen employed. As the maple-tree, wherever it grows, multiplies with astonishing rapidity, we found, almost every where on our journey, no want of excellent sugar.'

In approaching the great lakes, much of the land is flat and marshy; and the few inhabitants of this district are very subject to agues.

'It is a common observation,' says the author, 'that wild animals are less fierce in America than in other parts of the globe; the truth of this is confirmed by the testimony of such as, from their residence in forests, are best qualified to possess satisfactory information. Wolves, bears, nay even panthers, mostly flee before man; and the instances of their doing mischief are so rare, that the very reality of it might be doubted.

'The dangers, therefore, to which new settlers are exposed, are not much to be apprehended. The severest misfortune, to which the inhabitants of the American forest are liable, is the loss of their children in the woods. These unfortunate infants, over whom it is almost impossible to keep constantly a watchful eye, are apt to run out of the house, which is seldom fenced the first year, and straying from their homes are unable to find them again. In such cases, however, all the neighbours, nay persons from the remotest parts, join in the search after these little unfortunate creatures, and sometimes they are found; but there are also instances of their being totally lost, or discovered only when dead of hunger or fear.'

At Canandaqua, the travellers procured an Indian guide, who spoke the French language. Considerable tracts of land in this neighbourhood belong to Indians; and some of these possessions are 'situate within the limits of the territory lately ceded by Great Britain.'

'The State of Massachusetts claims the supreme right to the property, and, in virtue of this right, has sold to Messrs. Phelps and Gorham the exclusive privilege of purchasing these lands from the Indians, whenever they shall consent to part with them. Messrs.

Phelps and Gorham have sold this privilege of purchase to Mr. Robert Morris, by whom it has been again sold to the Dutch Company; this gentleman has also engaged to open a negociation with he Indians, and to prevail upon them to relinquish their right to a part at least of these lands. Thus four different sets of purchasers ave succeeded each other in regard to an object, concerning the ale of which the consent of the true original owners has not yet een obtained; and four different contracts have been entered into, ounded on the supposition, that it will be an easy matter to remove he Indians from these distant corners into which they have retired. t is some satisfaction, however, to reflect, that the property of hese lands cannot be actually transferred without their consent; but his, alas! is very easily obtained, as their more polished neighbours well know. A little whisky will bribe their chieftains to give their onsent to the largest cessions: and these rich lands, this extensive ract of territory, will be bartered away, with the consent of all parties, for a few rings, a few handkerchiefs, some barrels of rum, nd perhaps some money, which the unfortunate natives know not ow to make use of.'

The claim and sale of such a privilege constitute an act of reat injustice to the Indian proprietors; who, if they are inclined to sell, must be at the mercy of an individual who is without a competitor.

Buffalo is the chief place of the Seneca nation. Instead of eighty houses, of which we had been told this village consisted, we found only about forty. The rest stand on the banks of the creek farther up or downwards, and thus people an extent of several miles. The village is situated on a plain, the soil of which, to judge from the grass it produces, is extremely fertile. We saw Indians cutting the grass with their knives. Some families keep cows, and others even horses. There were some fine oxen to be sold in the village. All the commodities being considered as the produce of the labours of the wives, they alone dispose of them at pleasure. They are looked upon as the sole proprietors. It is with them that every bargain is made, all the money, even the houses in which they live, belong to them; the husbands have nothing but their gun, their tomahawk (a small axe, and at the same time their pipe), and the scalps severed from the skulls of the enemies they have slain, and which in greater or less number form the decoration of the dwellings of all Indian warriors. More property they do not want.

'The dignity of a chieftain is, in general, hereditary among the Indians; though some are also appointed by election. The sons of the chieftains, however, do not succeed, but those of the female chiefs. For the wives preserve this right of succession in their families, and transmit it to their descendants. Yet these Indian queens cultivate their fields with the spade in their hand. Though they have oxen to sell, it has hitherto not occurred to them, to yoke these animals to the plough. I have already observed, that a small field of Indian corn suffices for the wants of a family. There is, at times, another planted with potatoes; but, in general, these are planted between the rows of Indian corn.

'The fields are mostly irregular pieces of land taken from the common; they are not inclosed, being more effectually guarded by an universal honesty, which never deceives. The cattle, which constantly remain in the woods, do no damage to the crops. The fields, cultivated by the Indians, have, in general, a more luxuriant appearance than others, from the manner in which they are cultivated. Being better tilled, and kept constantly free from weeds, they cannot but produce heavier crops, which is actually the case.'

During the two hours which the author passed among these people, nothing particular occurred. He observed but little expression in their faces, little chearfulness, and little sagacity. They were extremely curious, yet viewed every thing without the least mark of astonishment or satisfaction. At Canandaqua, he heard of 'the arrival of a party of Indians who came to demand justice upon an American soldier, who had murdered two Indians from motives of jealousy or revenge. The business, however, was hushed up by the payment of two hundred dollars for each Indian, which is the settled price of compensation in such cases. Not so, however, when an Indian murders a white man: in this case, the assassin is delivered up and hanged.' It seems probable that the option of payment is open to both, but that the Indians, not often having the money to spare, or not deeming the culprit worth saving at that price, deliver him up.—The author, partly from his own knowlege, and partly from information resulting from his inquiries, has added many other circumstances respecting the Indians; most of which have appeared in other accounts.

Near Lake Erie, the country appeared a 'vast solitude,' which was interrupted only by a few villages distantly situated from each other. It was a comfort to the Duke and his companions to meet, as they occasionally did, with other travelling parties both of Indians and of white people: emigrations to Canada, and from Canada to the territory of the United States, being frequent. One party consisted of five or six families, (from the United States,) who had with them thirty-four head of cattle.—The Americans are deemed of an unsettled disposition; which may very easily be occasioned by the great quantity and choice of cheap land, and the facility with which they can change their situation.

On the 20th of June, M. de Liancourt and his companions crossed the Niagara nearly opposite to Fort Erie. 'The passage from the American to the English side, requires four or five minutes; and from the English to the American shore, the wolves in many places render it difficult to keep any other than the larger cattle. These parts are sometimes visited by flies and locusts in prodigious swarms:—but they do little injury to the grain. The locusts destroy the leaves of the trees. At Canawaga, besides a great variety of other insects, there were ' luminous worms, so very numerous as to diffuse by night a brightness really astonishing.'—In the present circumstances of the Americans, it is little matter of surprise if they give occasion for the remark, that the favourite principle of their system of agriculture seems to be, to avoid whatsoever requires labour.

In his journey, the author met with Mr. Brown, member of the Congress for Kentucky; and M. de Liancourt ' sifted him a little,' respecting the present state of that province:

> ' The result of the information I obtained (says he) is, that the soil is every where excellent, and frequently yields, for the first harvest, from one hundred to one hundred and ten bushels of Indian corn, and from fifty to fifty-five bushels of wheat an acre; that the price of land is six dollars per acre; of flour eleven dollars per barrel, and of Indian corn, one sixth of a dollar per bushel; that the population, which, in 1790, consisted of ninety thousand souls, amounts at present to one hundred and fifty thousand; that, in the course of last year, twenty-five thousand persons settled there; that the Indians attempt no longer any inroads in that part of the United States, which, though occupied the last of all, advances more rapidly towards a state of prosperity than any other district in America.'

We extract the following paragraph as an example of the manners of the Pennsylvanians:

> ' We overtook the stage-coach again at the White Horse, where the passengers breakfasted. It appears somewhat strange to Europeans to see the coachman eat at the same table with the passengers. —An innkeeper, a shoemaker, &c. are at liberty to wait on others, or to let it alone; but if they choose to wait on others, they should keep at a proper distance, and observe the respect which becomes their situation. It must be observed, however, that many an innkeeper in America is a Captain or a Major: nay, I have seen drivers of stage-coaches who were Colonels: such things are very common in America.—At several inns on less frequented roads, the circumstance of our servant not dining with us at the same table, excited general astonishment.'

Of the spirit of independence in the American States, the following account, if correctly given, affords an extraordinary example:

> ' The white American, by a pride which cannot be blamed, and which proceeds from the negroes being generally employed in the service, is ashamed of the situation of a domestic: so that there cannot be reckoned, throughout the whole extent of the United Provinces, twenty

native Americans in the state of domestic servants. The class of domestics is composed of poor priests, Germans, negroes, and mulattoes; and as soon as the first have acquired a little money, they quit that station, regarded with a sort of contempt, and establish themselves upon land.'—'The prejudice which causes the men in America to have so great a repugnance to the state of domestic servitude, does not influence the women in the same degree. Nothing is more common than to see young women of good families in the situation of servants, during the first years of their youth.'

We cannot refrain from observing that, both in the part of the journey which we have already noticed, and throughout the work, the author has taken the most indecent liberties with private characters. In numerous instances, he has retailed the little scandal and evil reports which neighbours are said to have whispered of each other; some of those stories, which he calls ludicrous, are incredible and foolish; and even little familiarities of courtship, with a modest young woman, are related with the same wantonness. Whether the Duke regarded himself as privileged by his rank, or whether an uncommonly *curious* disposition was wholly uncontrouled by any powers of retention, we cannot determine: but his mention of persons is frequently divested of delicacy and discretion; and he appears to be but little restrained by the dictates of charity. His commendations are generally accompanied with something invidious; and where he seems really to intend praise, his language is effeminate, and bordering on affectation. His political remarks are pointedly national; and he continually finds occasion to express a dislike, sometimes a contempt, of the *English*, while he bestows encomium on the *French* character. Partiality and preference for our own country and countrymen, under whatever circumstances, is a bias so natural, that it would be unjust to impute blame to such a sentiment: but decency would have prevented most persons from expressing ill-will towards any other country, in the degree apparently felt by the Duke towards the English. We speak not on the score of any civilities which the Duke may have experienced in this kingdom: those, if such have been, are to be regarded as a private account between him and his friends: nor do we claim any merit because our country has afforded shelter to the unfortunate of other states, who have been exiled from their native land, not for actions of moral turpitude: but there are boundaries which the customary civility of intercourse prescribes. We must, however, confess that examples are not wanting, of English writers who have shewn an equal degree of disrespect for other countries; and such excuse as bad precedent affords, M. de Liancourt may be allowed to claim, for as much of his remarks as are national or of a public nature: but the cool levity with which individuals are treated by him is, perhaps, without parallel among writers who have pretended any regard for the character of others, or for their own.

The travellers proceeded by water to Niagara. The sight of these falls, and the tremendous noise which they occasion, are described as truly impressive.

> ‘ From the civil treatment (says the author) we experienced, as soon as we reached the boundaries of the government of General Simcoe, we could not but expect a kind reception on his part; and yet the event exceeded our expectation. No sooner was he informed of our arrival, than he sent his Adjutant-general to invite us to dinner. Having just alighted from his horse, he could not come himself. We accepted his invitation, and shortly after dinner, he entreated us to remain with him, to sleep in his house, and consider ourselves at home. To refuse this invitation would have ill corresponded with the politeness of his conduct, of the sincerity of which we were convinced.'——
>
> ‘ We soon understood, that we should be obliged to continue longer in Niagara than we originally designed. On my acquainting Gen. Simcoe with my intention to proceed to Quebec, he informed me, that, without the express permission of Lord Dorchester, it was not in his power to allow any foreigner to enter Lower Canada; he even shewed us the Governor-general's positive orders to that effect, issued in the month of October, and occasioned by the conduct of some Frenchmen.'

Letters were dispatched to Lord Dorchester, in Lower Canada, requesting passports; the answer to which, from so great a distance, could not arrive under a considerable length of time. Much of this interval appears to have been filled up by the acquisition of political information; which, with the accompanying remarks, was probably committed to paper in an irritated state of mind. We shall not comment on the Duke's political reasonings: we wish not to disturb his prepossessions: but the reader will observe, with no little degree of wonder, the apparent unconsciousness with which the Duke has communicated circumstances which no man, with the smallest respect to propriety, could deem himself intitled to publish. A considerable portion of his communications, respecting Canada, consists in relations of what passed in private conversation. Whether the representations of M. de Liancourt be correct, or otherwise, it is not our province to inquire: but it is painful to us to behold an instance of a man of high rank and liberal education so abusing the general confidence observed not only among gentlemen, but among all ranks of people, as to treasure up for general circulation whatever might be uttered in the unsuspicious intercourse of retired society.

While the Duke remained with the Governor of Upper Canada, he was witness to several visits of ceremony made by the Indians. On these occasions,

> 'They were decked out with uncommon care, covered with rags of every description, and adorned with horse-hair and feathers of all possible species of birds.'—'In their manner of painting themselves, their genius is especially displayed. They are every one of them painted in a different style, and furnished with a small glass, which they every moment consult, with as much attention as the most finished coquette.'—'Their chief excellency consists in the great variety and richness of the colours, which they generally extract from leaves and from the roots of certain herbs; but they possess also the art of extracting them from all dyed linens or silks of which they can obtain a piece. They boil these rags in the juice of a plant, with the species of which I am unacquainted, and thus obtain a very durable colour for dying hair or bark.'

The Americans and English are each accused of inciting the Indians to acts of hostility against the other. The author 'indulges the hope that the time is not far distant, when the Indians shall possess sufficient sense to take the presents of England and the money of the United States, and to laugh at both these great nations; scorning to be any longer the tools of their ambition and revenge.' Would it not be as well that they should cease to be fools without becoming knaves?

At the end of eighteen days, our travelling party embarked in a vessel belonging to government, for Kingston, near the N.E. extremity of Lake Ontario; where, it was expected, the answer from Lord Dorchester would sooner be received. The author was 'so much displeased with the idea of making his passage at the expence of the King of England, that he ventured to offer money' to the captain; and his offer is said not to have met with a denial. He adds that the captain was a worthy man, civil, constantly on deck, &c. Whatever merit there might be in this piece of generosity, (which did not, however, lessen the expence of the King of England,) it is fully balanced by the poverty of spirit evinced in complaining to the reader respecting the acceptance of a gratuity, which the donor was not required (and probably not warranted) to offer.

The climate of this part of Upper Canada is favourable for the cultivator:

> 'There is no danger here, as in Europe, of the hay rotting, and the grain being spoiled by rains, if not speedily housed. There seldom passes a day without sun-shine; the sky is seldom entirely overcast; it never rains but during thunder-storms, and this rain

never continues longer than two hours. Grain is, besides, seldom liable here to blights, or any other kind of disease.

'The cattle are not subject to contagious distempers; they are numerous, without being remarkably fine.—Sheep are more numerous here than in any part of the United States which we have hitherto traversed. They are either procured from Lower Canada or the State of New York, and cost three dollars a head. They thrive in this country, but are high-legged, and of a very indifferent shape.'

Considerable quantities of the maple sugar are prepared by the Indians, as well as by the Canadian farmers. The whole amount of a common harvest in Lower Canada is estimated at four thousand bushels, three fourths of which are consumed in the country. In the neighbourhood of Kingston, the price of land was from two shillings and sixpence to one dollar per acre, if the twentieth part was cleared; and the price rises in proportion to the number of acres freed from wood. The rents are sometimes paid in grain. Provisions are cheaper in Lower Canada than in most parts of the United States. Emigrations likewise are more considerable from the United States to Canada, than from the latter to the former.

'We had an opportunity (says the author) of seeing a Canadian family, who were emigrating to the Illinois River. The husband had examined the settlement last year, and was now removing thither with his whole family, consisting of his wife and four children all embarked in a boat made of bark, fifteen feet in length by three in width. While the parents were rowing at the head and stern, the children, excepting the oldest, who was likewise rowing, were seated on mattresses or other effects; and thus they sang and pursued their voyage of at least one thousand one hundred miles. We met them at Newark. They proceed along the banks of the lakes and rivers, lie still every night, make a sort of tents of their sheets supported by two poles, dress their supper, eat it, wrap themselves up in their blankets until the morning, set off at eight o'clock, stop once a day to a meal, and then pursue their voyage again until the evening.'

On July 22d. the long expected answer from the Governor of Lower Canada arrived. 'It was of a nature,' says the author, 'to strike us with amazement,—a solemn prohibition, drawn up in the usual form, against coming to Lower Canada.' We wish not to entertain the reader with the Duke's complaints of this mortifying prohibition: his feelings on the occasion appear to have been sufficiently keen: but, as we become acquainted with his character from the perusal of his narrative, we neither wonder at nor lament his disappointment. It is natural to conclude that the Governor of Lower Canada had received some intimations of the inquisitive habits and busy disposition of his intended visitor; and, indeed, the Duke himself entertained a suspicion of a similar nature, which he expresses by saying that 'some emigrated French priest might have played me this trick by his influence over his Lordship's secretary or his mistress:——and well may this be the case; for, though, Heaven be thanked! I have never injured any one, yet I find constantly people in my way, who endeavour to injure me.' This is a species of confession which, if the work before us did not furnish sufficient proof, might be argued as evidence against the author's protestations of his harmlessness. No man of an inoffensive character will 'find people constantly in his way who endeavour to injure him.'

It was not to be supposed that, with the avowed prepossessions of the Duke against the English, the officers and merchants of our country would escape unattacked. It is true that he sometimes commends the English, but his compliments are *oddly turned;* of which the following passage is a sample. 'So much the better; a day is gone; for though the unwearied politeness of the officers affords us every day in Kingston a comfortable dinner and agreeable society from four to eight o'clock in the evening, yet we cannot but feel much *ennui*, in a place where no sort of amusement, *no well-informed man*, and no books shorten the long lingering day.' When he bestows commendation, he seems to think himself intitled to debit us, and take so much credit to the other side. We are not in the least desirous of keeping open such an account.

M. de Liancourt was not long in quitting Canada. The party embarked in a boat for Oswego; whence they directed their route across the province of New York and Massachusets, towards Boston. In this journey, the author took the consolation of visiting Saratoga. 'Yes,' he exclaims; 'I have seen that truly memorable place. If you love the English, are fond of conversing with them, and live with them on terms of familiarity and friendship, it is no bad thing, if occasionally you can say to them, "*I have seen Saratoga.*"

At Albany, the Duke parted from his companion, M. du Petit Thouars; who, having contracted an aguish complaint while in the marshy country near the lakes, thought it prudent to return home. This gentleman is described, not only by the present author, but by other persons who were well acquainted with him, as a man of a very valuable character: of a truly cheerful pleasant disposition and manners; experienced in his profession; enterprizing, and well informed. We have already mentioned his unfortunate expedition to the Brasils; (p. 12.) and the sequel of the history of this brave man must be a subject of sincere regret to all who hold real worth in estimation. Tired of the inactive life which he led in America, he returned to France, and made an offer of his services to the minister of the Marine; the offer was accepted; and he was appointed to the command of *Le Tonnant* of 84 guns, in which ship he fell at the memorable battle of the Nile, having continued to defend her with the most persevering resolution, even after he received his mortal wound.

The state of Massachusetts, the author writes, is as much cultivated as France:

'The road from Marlborough to Boston is a continual village. Twenty miles from this city begins an uninterrupted line of handsome houses, cleanly and pleasant buildings, neat gardens, and fine orchards, which form altogher a rich and delightful prospect, the charms of which are still more enhanced by numberless horses, cattle, and sheep, which enliven the landscape, and are sheltered from the scorching sun by clumps of trees, planted for that purpose. You see every where numerous churches, of a simple construction, but neatly painted, and furnished with fine spires. They are surrounded with open stables, in which the country-people put up their horses during the service. This is a pretty general custom throughout America, unknown in Europe, but which is more carefully attended to in Massachusetts, the most opulent and populous of these states I have hitherto seen.

'At last you pass through the handsome village of Cambridge, and reach Boston by a wooden bridge, which was finished last year, and which, including the causeway leading to it, is a mile in length.'

M. de Liancourt gives a good character of the University at Cambridge, in this province, in which are professorships for every branch of science. 'The funds for its support not being sufficiently considerable to instruct the scholars *gratis*, they are obliged to pay quarterly the moderate sum of sixteen dollars. They pay also six dollars per month for their board, and are admitted after a previous examination by the professors.' At Boston, and in many other towns in the United States, schools are supported out of the parish-rates.

In speaking of the trade of Boston, the author gives a short history of a voyage to the western coast of North America, the particulars of which were communicated to him by Captain Roberts, under whose command the expedition was performed. The most remarkable occurrence in this voyage was the discovery of some islands to the N.W. of the Marquesas, but which had been seen by another American vessel in the year before*.

From Boston, the author went by sea to Thomas-town, to Penobscot, and to other towns on that coast. He gives an account of the fisheries, which, with cutting and shipping off wood for the southern ports, form the principal occupation of the inhabitants. This country, though it has been long settled, is very thinly inhabited, as emigrants do not resort to it: the western districts of Pennsylvania, Kentucky, and other parts in which the climate is milder, being naturally preferred. From Portsmouth, a town of considerable trade, the Duke returned by land to Boston. He again speaks of the population and high state of culture in his approach to that town: 'It is an uninterrupted garden. The road in every part, better than any I have seen in America. It would be considered a delightful road even in the most beautiful districts of France and England.'

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* See the 1st Art. in our *Appendix*, published with this Number.

On his return to Boston, the author has added many particulars of informatian concerning the commerce of that port.—Hence he proceeded to the southward, through Plymouth, (where are considerable iron manufactories,) and through the States of Rhode Island and Connecticut, to New York. Rhode Island is one of the few places in the United States, in which the price of lands has not risen for some years past. The farmers are poor, and the population of the country has suffered by emigrations, particularly to Canada. The island, however, has a good trade to the West Indies, with horses, cattle, and provisions. The trade of Connecticut, likewise, is confined to the exportation of the surplus produce of the lands to the West India islands, or to the other states of the Union. The people of this state, the author remarks, 'are, all, in easy circumstances; few of them opulent.'——'They are said to be very litigious. No state, perhaps no equal number of people in the universe, have such a number of law-suits. There is nowhere else such a mob of advocates as here.'

The Duke made but a short stay at New York, and returned to Philadelphia, having been absent from that city seven months.—In different parts of his tour, he has made mineralogical observations; and at every place in which he had time to prosecute inquiries, he collected information respecting the soil, cultivation, produce, population, and commerce; with a variety of other matter, the detail of which would carry us beyond our customary limits.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. III. *The Punishments of China:* illustrated by Twenty-Two Engravings: with Explanations in English and French. Royal Quarto. 3l. 13s. 6d. Boards. Miller. 1801.

If there now be any persons who, like the late George Selwyn, are *amateurs* of the science of punishment, (school-masters excepted in course,) they will receive with eagerness the fresh supply of amusement which the title of this work will promise to them; and, when the exquisite luxury of a real execution is not to be obtained, they will be much gratified in surveying these silent representations of torture:—but we are of opinion that, where this singular taste does not exist, these coloured engravings must excite more pain than pleasure. A description of the sufferings of malefactors is sufficiently shocking; and we imagine that the public are not so solicitous of accurate information on this subject, as to wish to have the whole series of punishments strikingly pourtrayed by the pencil of the artist. We cannot, indeed, refrain from contemplating this publication with some emotion of surprise, at the fancy or the judgment which induced the proprietor of this work to open so singular an exhibition. Let his opinion of the public curiosity, however, or his own taste, be as they may, we wish that he had avowed himself, and had condescended to give a history of his undertaking. From the similarity of the two works, it is no doubt expected that we should consider the present set of plates as a sort of companion to the splendid publication of Major Mason, on *the Costume of China*, of which we lately gave some account (vol. xxxiii. p. 354): but we feel it to be our duty to remark that neither that gentleman's name, nor any other signature, appears to vouch for its authenticity, and to assure the public that these are accurate delineations of the *castigating* practices of the Chinese. Though the subjects of them cannot be pleasing, some degree of curiosity may be attached to them: but then we ought to be assured that our feelings are not unnecessarily shocked by fictitious representations. We indeed see no reason for entertaining such doubts: but, instead of a detail similar to that by which Mr. Mason thought himself bound in honour to introduce his series of plates, we have only the following observations on the Chinese penal code, by way of preface:

'The Chinese code of penal laws is compiled in such a manner as to have a punishment appropriated for every crime. A series of these is displayed in the following plates *.

'The wisdom of the Chinese Legislature is no where more conspicuous than in its treatment of robbers, no person being doomed to suffer death for having merely deprived another of some temporal property, provided he neither uses nor carries any offensive weapon. This sagacious edict renders robbery unfrequent; the daring violator of the laws, hesitating to take with him those means, which might preserve his own life, or affect that of the plundered, in event of resistance, generally confines his depredations to acts of private pilfering; and a robbery, attended with murder, is, of course, very rarely perpetrated. This instance of justice, moderation, and wisdom, in the laws of China, receives an unfavourable contrast in the decree, which pronounces the wearing of a particular ornament to be a capital crime; and in the custom of attending to the fallacious information extorted by the rack.

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* The writer should rather have said 'a series of some of them,' as these plates cannot comprize all the crimes committed; and we are soon told that they are *not all* the punishments inflicted by the Chinese. Rev.

'Various writers have mentioned other punishments, in addition to those represented in this publication, of a much severer nature, which have been inflicted by the Chinese upon criminals, convicted of regicide, parricide, rebellion, treason, or sedition; but drawings, or even verbal descriptions of these, would be committing an indecorous violence on the feelings, and inducing us to arraign the temperance and wisdom, so universally acknowledged in the government of China.'

Before we transcribe the remainder of this preface, we must arrest the reader's attention by a remark or two on the passage which he has just perused. If the Chinese be guilty of extreme cruelty towards any class of offenders, their temperance and wisdom ought to be arraigned; and we should not compliment this people, and their government, by attributing to them virtues which they do not possess. Besides, in the exhibition of torture and misery, it is fair to ask *how far* we may proceed without *committing indecorous violence* on the feelings of humanity? The reason here assigned for not enlarging the exhibition might have induced the editor, as many will think, to withhold some pictures admitted into the collection; and he may be asked whether, in the delineation of a man *under the torture of the rack*, and of *the capital punishment of the cord*, he has not committed an indecorous violence on the feelings of the spectator?

The preface thus concludes:

'Exclusively of their novelty and information, the principal recommendations, possessed by representations of this nature, arise from the sensation of security *, which they produce in those bosoms that heave upon a tract of the globe, where they are protected from being torn by lengthened agonies: where a person's innocence is not estimated by his mental or corporeal powers of enduring pain: where tyranny, fanaticism, or anarchy, cannot exercise their demoniacal propensities for cruelty: where capital punishment is only instituted and permitted as a necessary link in the chain of social order, to deter the evil-minded from committing outrages against their fellow-creatures, and to debar the offender from the power of perpetrating farther wrong. These intentions are fully answered by publickly depriving the malefactor of his existence, which is effected, in England, in a manner the most instantaneous and least sanguinary, that a compassionate people could adopt; and whose natural intrepidity is further manifested by this attention to the pangs of suffering humanity.'

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* This supposed sensation is similar to the pleasure which Lucretius describes a man to feel, who, safe on shore, surveys the horrors of a storm:

> "*Suave mari magno, turbantibus æquora ventis,*
> *Impavidis oculis, pelagi spectare pericla.*"

Rev.

We are far from wishing that our government should copy the punishments here delineated as those which are practised in China: but, though our own country possesses as much humanity and benevolence as any region of the globe, it may be questioned whether we are not too liberal of capital punishment; and whether more death is not dealt forth by the law, than is absolutely necessary to social order.

The plates in this volume represent the following objects:

1. A culprit before a magistrate.
2. A culprit conveyed to prison.
3. A culprit conducted to trial.
4. An offender undergoing the bastinade.
5. Twisting a man's ears.
6. Punishment of the swing.
7. Punishing a boatman.
8. Punishing an interpreter.
9. The rack!
10. Torturing the fingers.
11. Burning a man's eyes with lime!
12. A malefactor chained to an iron bar.
13. Punishment of the wooden collar.
14. A man fastened to a block of wood.
15. A malefactor in a cage!
16. Punishment of a wooden tube.
17. Hamstringing a malefactor!
18. Close confinement.
19. Conducting an offender into banishment.
20. A malefactor conducted to execution.
21. The capital punishment of the chord; (or strangling.)
22. The manner of beheading.

Every person of feeling, after having contemplated these plates, would surely be ready to exclaim with Macbeth,

——"*No more sights!*"

The explanatory parts of this work being so far from agreeable in their nature, we cannot select such various quotations as we made from Major Mason's work. The account of the first plate, however, is instructive and unobjectionable:

'It is the custom in China, for a Mandarin of justice to administer it daily, morning and evening, in his own house, where he is attended by his secretary, or clerk, and by inferior officers, some of them bearing iron shackles, and others, pan-tsees *. Upon his right-hand stands the prosecutor, or informer; and before him is a table with a covering of silk, and the implements of writing for the secretary to take down the depositions and defence. These having been written in black ink, the magistrate signs them with red, and seals them with the same colour. On the table there are, also, a number of small sticks, tipped with red; these are kept in open cases, and are used in the following manner: If a culprit is convicted of a petty offence, the magistrate causes him to be immediately chastised and released. The usual punishment on such occasions, is the pan-tsee, or bastinade, and the number of blows to be inflicted is signified by the magistrate's casting some of the above-mentioned small sticks upon the floor: each stick denotes five blows. The culprit, who, during the examination, has awaited the decree upon his hands and knees, is then seized by the attendants, and punished. After the magistrate has thrown the sticks, he talks of other affairs, drinks his tea, or smoaks his tobacco.

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* *Pan-tsee* is a thick piece of split bamboo cane, the lower end of which is about four inches in width and the latter end small and smooth, to render the instrument more convenient for the hand. It is used to inflict the punishment of the bastinade.

'It is only for trivial breaches of the Chinese laws, such as drunkenness, cheating, squabbling, boxing, pilfering, insolence or inattention towards a superior, or the like, that any magistrate is empowered to administer punishment in a summary manner. Whenever the crime is of such a description as to call for severer notice, it is generally examined into by five or six tribunals, who not only require very particular information concerning the charge, but scrutinize with minute exactness into the characters and manners of the accusers.

'Their proceedings in capital accusations are thus protracted in China, lest any man should be unjustly deprived of the inestimable benefits of honour or life: and no criminal can be executed until his trial has been sent to court, and his sentence has been confirmed by the Emperor.'

To whom we are indebted for these explanations, we are not told, any more than to whom we owe the plates: but Sir George Staunton's account of the British Embassy to China, is sometimes quoted as authority. It is merely justice to add that the engravings and the colouring possess equal merit with those which decorated Major Mason's publication.

Art. IV. *The Oriental Geography of Ebn Haukal*, an Arabian Traveller of the Tenth Century. Translated from a Manuscript in his own Possession, collated with one preserved in the Library of Eton College, by Sir William Ouseley, Knt. LL.D. 4to. pp. 363. 1l. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

To rear and to complete the lofty structure of antient and modern geography, the united labours of all ages and all countries were requisite. However inferior to others the Asiatics may be in general science, a more correct knowlege of the local situation of the countries which they inhabit must certainly be conceded to them; and however great is the improvement which geography has received in modern times, the former population, commerce, and comparative importance of different cities, can no longer be ascertained with accuracy but by a reference to the writers who flourished in them, at distant periods. Abul Casim Ebn Haukal in all probability composed his work about the middle of the tenth century, in the Arabic language; and though it cannot thence be inferred that he was an Arabian, the epithet of traveller is justly applied to him, as he mentions that he visited Egypt and Samarcand in person.—The translation now offered to the public is made from a Persian commentary; and the inaccuracy of successive copyists has occasioned considerable perplexity in the multitude of proper names, which necessarily occur in a geographical work. The same name is frequently found differently spelt, and sometimes so completely changed as to leave no trace of its identity; the distances are often erroneous; and all the mistakes, which might naturally be expected in a manuscript repeatedly transcribed by ignorant amanuenses, abound in the original, and are faithfully preserved in the translation. In order to illustrate his author, Sir William Ouseley has assiduously consulted a great variety of Oriental writers: but his illustrations are reserved for a a future work, and in the meantime Ebn Haukal appears before the public with blemishes not his own. It might be imagined that the learned translator considered even the mistakes of an Oriental writer as singularly curious and edifying; for it were impossible to copy them with greater fidelity, or to be more cautious lest his readers should lose the acquisition of a single error.

'My design,' says Ebn Haukal, 'in the composition of this book, is to describe the various climates and regions of the face of the earth, comprized within the circle of Islam, or Mohamedanism:—but, as the particular details seemed unnecessarily prolix, they are here compressed within a small compass; and in the present volume, which is entitled Mesalec or Memalec, our plan is to describe, and to delineate on maps, the various seas or oceans which surround the land, the inhabited and the desert islands, and every climate or region of the earth; affixing the name of each, so that it may be known in the maps; and confining ourselves to those countries which are the seat of Islam, and the residence of true believers.' The maps might possibly have supplied some important desiderata in eastern geography, but unfortunately they were wanting in Sir William's manuscript. We do, indeed, find a map prefixed to this publication, intitled, 'a general map to illustrate Sir William Ouseley's translation of the Oriental geography of Ebn Haukal:' but it affords a mere outline of the general divisions of Asia, and the position of a few of the principal cities, derived from the materials furnished by European geographers.

In the tenth century, the religion of Mohamed prevailed in the fairest regions of the globe, and extended its influence from the banks of the Tagus to the source of the Oxus. The seat of Islam comprehended, in Europe, the best part of Spain or Andalus, the islands of Sicily and Crete, (Sicalia and Acrites,) and probably some smaller isles of the Archipelago. In Africa, it extended from Tangier opposite to Jebeltaric, (Gibraltar,) along the coasts of the Mediterranean to Egypt; which it included, as well as Nubia and Baja, on the confines of Abyssinia. The space from Tangier to Sus-al-acsi (Terudant in Morocco), comprehended the countries of the Moslems on the shores of the Atlantic. In Asia, the boundaries of Islam were limited only by the Hindus on the east, and by the Tartars on the northern extremity; Syria, Arabia, Persia, and Transoxania, were the principal seats of the new faith: but it is singular that Arabia, in which it had its origin, should have been totally omitted by this Mohamedan geographer. We are disposed to think that the translator's manuscript is incomplete; and we cannot agree with him that 'the author appears to have accomplished his design, intimated in the second and third pages of this work,' when so material a deficiency occurs in the execution of his plan.

From the illustrations promised by the ingenious translator, we anticipate much curious information: but the work before us chiefly presents an itinerary, which, though highly useful to the construction of future maps, particularly of Asia, affords little pleasure in the perusal. The descriptions of countries and cities seldom supply the most important particulars; instead of the number of inhabitants, Ebn Haukal informs us of the number of the gates; and when to this statement he has superadded the number of the mosques, the city is amply described. Sometimes he ventures into greater detail, and speaks of the commerce and agriculture of the country; especially in his account of Transoxania (Maverulnehr), to which he gives a decided preference over all the regions of Islam. Indeed, we have long been of opinion that the histories and scientific performances of Asia are chiefly useful as authorities and text books; they may supply important facts and useful hints, but their utility is by no means proportioned to their bulk. To a mind capable of combining and digesting the knowlege derived from different sources, they will furnish materials for agreeable and instructive disquisitions: but, for this purpose, a literal translation is less requisite than a lucid commentary; which may include the useful knowlege comprized in the original with the requisite illustrations, and exclude every passage which has no merit but that of coming from the pen of an Asiatic.

As a specimen of the present work, we insert two of the most entertaining chapters; to which we have subjoined occasional remarks in the form of notes:

‘ *Account of the most extraordinary Edifices in Pars (Persia) and other Curiosities.*

‘ In the territory of Istakhar is a great building, with statues carved in stone; and there, also, are inscriptions, and paintings. It is said that this was a temple of Solomon, to whom be peace! and that it was built by the Dives, or Demons: similar edifices are in Syria, and Baalbeck, and Egypt *.

‘ In the territory of Istakhar, also, there is a kind of apple, half of which is sweet, and half sour. Merdas ben Omru mentioned this circumstance to Hasan Reja: he denied the possibility of it, and Merdas sent and caused one to be brought, and shewed it to him.

‘ At the village of Abderrahman, there is a certain great pit, the bottom of which is dry all the year, except at the season for watering the fields, when water issues from it, and serves for the purposes of agriculture and drinking. When it is not any longer necessary for the husbandman's use, the water disappears †.

‘ In the territory of Shapur, there is a mountain; and in that mountain are the statues of all the kings, and generals, and high priests (Mubed), and illustrious men, who have existed in Pars. And in that place are some persons who have representations of them, and the stories of them written; and this tribe belongs to the territory of Arghan, at Hism Mehdi ‡.

‘ At the city of Jaur, near the northern gate, is a pond, or pool of water, in which a brazen vessel is so placed, that, from a hole in it, the water issues with great violence.

‘ In the vicinity of Abercuh are considerable heaps of ashes. The common people say, that here was the fire of Nimrod (into which he caused Abraham to be thrown). But this is not true: the fact is, that Nimrod, and the kings of Canaan, dwelt in the land of Babylon.

‘ In the Cura of Arghan [called Ragian on our maps. *R.*] at the village called Sahil al Arab, there is a well, from which proceeds water enough to turn a mill, and water the fields. The people here say, that they have made various efforts to ascertain the depth of this well, but have not ever been able to reach the bottom.

‘ In the Cura of Rostac al rostac there is a place between two hills, from which smoke constantly issues; and it is said, that if a bird should fly near that place, it would drop down.

‘ In the Desht Varin, there is a village called Khusruhin, in which there is not any tree. Here is a family, of whose sorceries and magic I have heard such an anecdote as cannot be repeated.

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* The ruins here meant are the Chehel Minar, or forty pillars, supposed to constitute the only remains of the city of Persepolis, destroyed by Alexander. *R.*

† This singular phænomenon is not entirely without example; as we read of a pool in Guienne, near the church of St. Jean D'Angeli, which is almost destitute of water in winter, though in summer it yields it abundantly. A similar fountain is said to exist in Spain, about twelve miles from Valladolid, which begins to flow in May, and ceases in November. *R.*

‡ We know not whether the above passage relates to the ruins at Nakshi Rustum, which have been usually mentioned as sepulchres. *R.*

'In Ardeshir Dera, near the gate of Shiraz, is a fountain, of which they drink the water as a purgative; one cupful operates once upon the body; two cups full, twice: if one drinks many, it occasions vomitings, and excessive evacuations.

'Near Arghan, (Ragian,) on the borders of Khuzistan, is a remarkable pile, or heap, called the Tel Dilemi, with a vault or recess, two hundred paces broad, and so high that a man, mounted on a mule, with a standard in his hand, cannot reach the top.

'In the territory of Cuan, there is a certain flower, which they eat green, like the leaves of the Chucander.

'In the territory of Shiraz, there is a plant or herb, which they call Susen Nergus, (the lily narcissus).

'Near Varin there is a river called Nehrehin, the water of which is pleasant to the taste, and is used for the purposes of agriculture; but when clothes are washed in it, it becomes green *.'

'*Account of the Commodities and Productions of Fars.*

'The rose water of Shiraz is most remarkably excellent, and highly esteemed in all parts of the world. It is chiefly made at Jaur, and sent by sea to Hejaz (Arabia Deserta) and Yemen (Arabia Felix). It is also sent to Syria, and Egypt, and Magreb, or Africa, and Khorazan. Here also is made oil, better than that of any other place, except the oil of Khiri, and that of Cufa.

year they open the place where it is produced, and a certain quantity of it is taken for the king's use, in presence of confidential persons, who then seal up the place; and in the territory of Darabghird there are hills of salt, white, black, yellow, and green *.

'In the land of Pars there are mines of silver, and iron, and lead, and sulphur, and naphta. The silver is scarce, and found in the cold region called Manein. Iron is brought from the mountains of Istakhar, and from the place called Darabghird.

'The striped stuffs of Shiraz are well known; and in the Cura of Istakhar they manufacture fine linen.'

When the public are in possession of the illustrations promised by Sir Wm. Ouseley, we shall have occasion to recur to the geography of Ebn Haukal; and probably in a manner more satisfactory to our readers, as well as to the learned translator.

Art. V. *Researches, Chemical and Philosophical;* chiefly concerning Nitrous Oxide or dephlogisticated Nitrous Air, and its Respiration. By Humphry Davy, Superintendant of the Medical Pneumatic Institution. 8vo. pp. 580. 10s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1800.

The subject of this volume has excited considerable expectation, among chemical and medical readers. When Dr. Beddoes announced, last year, the discovery of a new species of air, the inhalation of which produced sensations exquisitely pleasurable, and by means of which he hoped to renovate decayed constitutions, every one was eager to receive farther intelligence of so extraordinary a product. That desire will be amply gratified by the copious dissertation before us: which is divided into four parts; 1. consisting of Researches into the Analysis of Nitric Acid and Nitrous Gas, and the Production of Nitrous Oxide. 2. Researches into the Combinations of Nitrous Oxide, and its Decomposition. 3. Researches relating to the Respiration of Nitrous Oxide, and other Gases. 4. Researches relating to the Effects produced by the Respiration of Nitrous Oxide on different Individuals.

Under the first head, we are presented with an interesting series of *Experiments on Nitric Acid and Ammoniac;* relating to the composition of both which substances, Mr. Davy has corrected some inaccuracies of former writers. His conclusions respecting the specific gravity of nitric acid are as follow:

'We may conclude first, that 100 cubic inches of nitrous acid, such as exists in the aëriform state saturated with oxygene, at temperature 55°, and atmospheric pressure 30,1, weigh 75,17 grains.

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* What must we understand by this mummy annually excavated for the king's use? Was the place a cemetery, and the substance found a mineral tallow similar to that observed at Paris in the *Cemetiere des Innocens? R.*

'Secondly, that 100 grains of it are composed of 68,06 nitrous gas, and 31,94 oxygene. Or assuming what will be hereafter proved, that 100 parts of nitrous gas consist of 55,95 oxygene, and 44,05 nitrogene, of 29,9 nitrogene, and 70,1 oxygene; or taking away decimals, of 30 of the one to 70 of the other.

'Thirdly, that 100 grains of pale green solution of nitrous acid in water, of specific gravity 1,301, are composed of 50,62 water, and 49,38 acid of the above composition.'

A *standard acid* is thus obtained for the chemist.—In the course of this inquiry, an ingenious opinion is suggested, relating to the difference between *nitric* and *nitrous* acids, by a friend of Mr. Davy. He supposes that the nitrous (or orange-coloured) acid 'ought not to be considered as a distinct and less oxygenated state of acid, but simply as nitric or pale acid, holding in solution, that is, loosely combined with, nitrous gas.' [p. 31.]

We shall extract Mr. Davy's account of the process by which the respirable nitrous oxide was produced, and the general view of its properties:

'200 grains of compact nitrate of ammoniac were introduced into a glass retort, and decomposed slowly by the heat of a spirit lamp. The first portions of the gas that came over were rejected, and the last received in jars containing mercury. No luminous appearance '*i.* Its taste was distinctly sweet, and its odor slight, but agreeable.

'*j.* It underwent no diminution when mingled with oxygene or nitrous gas.'

For the description of the apparatus employed, we must refer to the work itself, because it cannot be well understood without the plate.—Mr. Davy found the specific gravity of nitrous oxide greater than he had expected from Dr. Priestley's experiments: 100 cubic inches of this gas, in a state of purity, weigh 50,1 grains, at temperature 50°, and atmospheric pressure 30,7.

As the directions for preparing the nitrous oxide for experiments will be generally interesting, we here insert them:

'When compact nitrate of ammoniac is slowly decomposed, the nitrous oxide produced is almost immediately fit for respiration; but as one part of the salt begins to decompose before the other is rendered fluid, a considerable loss is produced by sublimation.

'For the production of large quantities of nitrous oxide, fibrous nitrate of ammoniac should be employed. This salt undergoes no decomposition till the greater part of its water is evaporated, and in consequence at the commencement of that process, is uniformly heated.

'The gas produced from fibrous nitrate, must be suffered to rest at least for an hour after its generation. At the end of this time it is generally fit for respiration. If examined before, it will be found to contain more or less of a white vapor, which has a disagreeable acidulous taste, and strongly irritates the fauces and lungs. This vapor, most probably, consists of acid nitrate of ammoniac and water, which were dissolved by the gas at the temperature of its production, and afterwards slowly precipitated.

'It is found in less quantity when compact nitrate is employed, because more salt is sublimed in this process, which being rapidly precipitated, carries with it the acid and water.

'Whatever salt is employed, the last portions of gas produced, generally contain less vapor, and may in consequence be respired sooner than the first.

'The nitrate of ammoniac should never be decomposed in a metallic vessel,* nor the gas produced suffered to come in contact with any metallic surface; for in this case the free nitric acid will be decomposed, and in consequence, a certain quantity of nitrous gas produced.

'The apparatus that has been generally employed in the medical pneumatic institution, for the production of nitrous oxide, consists

'1. Of a glass retort, of the capacity of two or three quarts, orificed at the top, and furnished with a ground stopper.

'2. Of a glass tube, conical for the purpose of receiving the neck of the retort: about ,4 inches wide in the narrowest part, 4 feet long, curved at the extremity, so as to be capable of introduction

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'* Except it be gold or platina.'

into an airholder, and inclosed by tin plate to preserve it from injury.

'3. Of airholders of Mr. Watt's invention, filled with water saturated with nitrous oxide.

'4. Of a common air-furnace, provided with dampers for the regulation of the heat.

'The retort, after the insertion of the salt, is connected with the tube, carefully luted, and exposed to the heat of the furnace, on a convenient stand. The temperature is never suffered to be above 500°. After the decomposition has proceeded for about a minute, so that the gas evolved from the tube enlarges the flame of a taper, the curved end is inserted into the airholder, and the nitrous oxide preserved.

'The water thrown out of the airholders in consequence of the introduction of the gas, is preserved in a vessel adapted for the purpose, and employed to fill them again; for if common water was to be employed in every experiment, a great loss of gas would be produced from absorption.

'A pound of fibrous nitrate of ammoniac, decomposed at a heat not above 500°, produces nearly 5 cubic feet of gas; whilst from a pound of compact nitrate of ammoniac, rarely more than 4,25 cubic feet can be collected.

'For the production of nitrous oxide in quantities not exceeding 10 quarts, a mode still more simple than that I have just described may be separated from each other without making any allowance for contraction or expansion: but if a mixture of either muriatic acid, or sulphureous acid gas, with nitrous oxide, is experimented upon; in the absorption of the acid by alkalies, the apparent volume of gas condensed will be less than the real one, by a quantity equal to the sum of expansion from combination. Consequently a correction must be made on account of this circumstance.

'Though alcohol, ether, essential oils, and the fluid inflammable bodies in general, dissolve nitrous oxide with much greater rapidity than water, yet as we are not perfectly acquainted with their action on unabsorbable gases, it is better to employ water for separating nitrous oxide from these substances; particularly as that fluid is more or less combined with all gases, and as we are acquainted with the extent of its action upon them.

'By pursuing the subject of the solution of essential oils in gases, we may probably discover a mode of obtaining them in a state of absolute dryness. For if other gases as well as nitrous oxide, have a stronger affinity for oils than for water, water most probably will be precipitated from them during their solution of oils; and after their saturation with oil, it is likely that they are capable of being deprived of that substance by ammoniac.'

After having detailed a variety of ingenious experiments, which we have not room to particularize, Mr. Davy gives this general opinion respecting the resemblance of the properties of nitrous oxide to acids:

'If we were inclined to generalise, and to place nitrous oxide among a known class of bodies, its properties would certainly induce us to consider it as more analogous to the acids than to any other substances; for it is capable of uniting with water and the alkalies, and is insoluble in most of the acids. It differs, however, from the stronger acids, in not possessing the sour taste, and the power of reddening vegetable blues: and from both the stronger and weaker acids, in not being combinable when in a perfectly free state, at common temperatures, with the alkalies. If it should be proved by future experiments, that condensation by cold gave it the capability of immediately forming neutro-saline compounds with the alkalies, it ought to be considered as the weakest of the acids. Till those experiments are made, its extraordinary chemical and physiological properties are sufficient to induce us to consider it as a body *sui generis*.'

The experiments on the combinations of nitrous oxide with combustible bodies contain some curious facts. Mr. Davy found that the action of the electric spark, long continued, converts nitrous oxide into a gas analogous to atmospheric air, and into nitrous acid.—From the result of many experiments on the decomposition of nitrous oxide by hydrogene, the author concludes that 100 parts of the oxide consist of 63.5 nitrogene, and 36.5 oxygene.—It had been observed that a taper burns in nitrous oxide with a double flame. This appearance Mr. Davy explains from the formation of nitrous acid by the ignition.

The concluding section of this head contains views of so much importance, that we must extract it entire:

'During the decompositions of the combinations of oxygene and nitrogene by combustible bodies, a considerable momentary expansion of the acting substances, and the bodies in contact with them is generally produced, connected with increased temperature; whilst light is often generated to a great extent.

'Of the causes of these phænomena we are at present ignorant. Our knowledge of them must depend upon the discovery of the precise nature of heat and light, and of the laws by which they are governed. The application of general hypotheses to isolated facts can be of little utility; for this reason I shall at present forbear to enter into any discussions concerning those agents which are imperceptible to the senses, and known only by solitary effects.

'Analysis and synthesis clearly prove that oxygene and nitrogene constitute the known ponderable matter of atmospheric air, nitrous oxide, nitrous gas, and nitric acid.

'That the oxygene and nitrogene of atmospheric air exist in chemical union, appears almost demonstrable from the following evidences.

'1st. The equable diffusion of oxygene and nitrogene through every part of the atmosphere, which can hardly be supposed to depend on any other cause than an affinity between these principles.*

'2dly. The difference between the specific gravity of atmospheric as far as we are acquainted with its affinities, incapable of combining with most of the simple and compound substances. 100 cubic inches of it weigh about 31 grains at 55° temperature, and 30 atmospheric pressure.

‘Nitrous Oxide is a gas unalterable in its constitution, at temperatures below ignition. It is composed of oxygene and nitrogene, existing *perhaps* in the most intimate union which those substances are capable of assuming.* Its properties approach to those of acids. It is decomposable by the combustible bodies at very high temperatures, is soluble in double its volume of water, and in half its bulk of most of the inflammable fluids. It is combinable with the alkalies, and capable of forming with them peculiar salts. 100 grains of it are composed of about 63 nitrogene, and 37 oxygene. 100 cubic inches of it weigh 50 grains, at 55° temperature, and 30 atmospheric pressure.

‘Nitrous Gas is composed of about ,56 oxygene, and ,44 nitrogene, in intimate union. It is soluble in twelve times its bulk of water, and is combinable with the acids, and certain metallic solutions; it is possessed of no acid properties, and is decomposable by most of the bodies that attract oxygene strongly, at high temperatures. 100 cubic inches of it weigh about 34 grains, at the mean temperature and pressure.

‘Nitric Acid is a substance permanently aëriform at common temperatures, composed of about 1 nitrogene, to 2,3 oxygene. It is soluble to a great extent in water, and combinable with the alkalies, and nitrous gas. It is decomposable by most of the combustible bodies, at certain temperatures. 100 cubic inches of it weigh, at the mean temperature and pressure, nearly 76 grains.’

The third part, intitled *Inquiries into the Effects of Nitrous Oxide when respired by Animals*, contains a distinction between the respirable and non-respirable gases, which will be new to many of our readers. Respirable gases, according to Mr. Davy's acceptation, are those which can be introduced into the lungs of an animal by voluntary inspiration, without regard to their effect in supporting or destroying vitality; non-respirable gases are those which produce a spasmodic constriction of the muscles of the epiglottis, which prevents their admission into the bronchia. The first set of experiments, under this head, proves that the nitrous oxide destroys life, when respired for a certain time by warm-blooded animals. In the next series, the action of hydrogene is compared with that of the nitrous oxide on respiration; and Mr. Davy finds that animals live at least twice as long in nitrous oxide, as in hydrogene or water. He supposes that the oxide acts by producing some change in the state of the blood.

‘* For it is unalterable by those bodies which are capable of attracting oxygene from nitrous gas and nitrous acid, at common temperatures.’

On the dissection of animals killed by exposure to the nitrous oxide, the following appearances were observed:

'The lungs are pale brown red, and covered here and there with purple spots; the liver is of a very bright red, and the muscular fibre in general dark. Both the auricles and ventricles of the heart are filled with blood. The auricles contract for minutes after the death of the animal. The blood in the left ventricle, and the aorta, is of a tinge between purple and red, whilst that in the right ventricle is of a dark color, rather more purple than the venous blood.'

We are afterward told that venous blood, when in nitrous oxide, and compared with blood agitated in common air, hydrogene, and nitrogene, was always darker and more purple than the first, and much brighter and more florid than the second and third.—Mr. Davy found that animals are destroyed by the respiration of mixtures of nitrous oxide and hydrogene, nearly in the same time as by pure nitrous oxide. From experiments on two water-lizards, he infers that they die in nitrous oxide in a much shorter period than in hydrogene or pure water.

The subsequent conclusions are drawn from a series of experiments on the effect of this gas, on venous blood, out of the body:

'1st. That when nitrous oxide is agitated in fluid venous blood, a certain portion of the gas is absorbed; whilst the color of the blood changes from dark red to red purple.

'2dly. That during the absorption of nitrous oxide by the venous blood, minute portions of nitrogene and carbonic acid are produced, either by evolution from the blood, or from a decomposition of part of the nitrous oxide.

'3dly. That venous blood impregnated with nitrous oxide is capable of oxygenation; and vice versa; that oxygenated blood may be combined with nitrous oxide.'

In attempting to ascertain the changes produced on nitrous oxide by respiration, Mr. Davy encountered considerable difficulties: but, at length, having converted his mercurial airholder into a respiring machine, he was enabled to determine the point with accuracy. He then found that nitrous oxide is rapidly absorbed by the venous blood, through the moist coats of the pulmonary veins; and that the residual gas of the lungs consists of nitrogene, mingled with small portions of oxygene and carbonic acid.—A variety of curious experiments follow, into the details of which we shall not enter, as the author has not yet completed his views respecting them:—but the conclusion of this general head is so judiciously and modestly expressed, that we shall lay it before our readers in Mr. Davy's own words:

'The experiments in the first Division of this Research, prove that nitrous oxide when respired by animals, produces peculiar changes in their blood and in their organs, first connected with increased living action; but terminating in death.

'From the experiments in this Division, it appears, that nitrous oxide is rapidly absorbed by the circulating venous blood, and of course its condensed oxygene and nitrogene distributed in the blood over the whole of the system.

'Concerning the changes effected in the principles of the impregnated blood during circulation, and its action upon the nervous and muscular fibre; it is useless to reason in the present state of our knowledge.

'It would be easy to form theories referring the action of blood impregnated with nitrous oxide, to its power of supplying the nervous and muscular fibre with such proportions of condensed nitrogene, oxygene, and light or etherial fluid, as enabled them more rapidly to pass through those changes which constitute their life: but such theories would be only collections of terms derived from known phænomena, and applied by loose analogies of language to unknown things.

'We are unacquainted with the composition of dead organised matter; and new instruments of experiment and new modes of research must be found, before we can ascertain even our capabilities of discovering the laws of life.'

The last Research, in this interesting work, contains *An Account of the Effect of respiring the Nitrous Oxide, on different Individuals.* Mr. Davy seems to have been led to investigate this gas (the dephlogisticated nitrous gas of Dr. Priestley) by the American Dr. Mitchell's Theory of Contagion, which we have had several occasions to notice:

'The fallacy of this Theory was soon demonstrated, by a few coarse experiments made on small quantities of the gas procured from zinc and diluted nitrous acid. Wounds were exposed to its action, the bodies of animals were immersed in it without injury; and I breathed it mingled in small quantities with common air, without remarkable effects. An inability to procure it in sufficient quantities, prevented me at this time, from pursuing the experiments to any greater extent.'

After several ineffectual trials with the gas in a much diluted or impure state, Mr. Davy determined to inhale it pure:

'Having previously closed my nostrils and exhausted my lungs, I breathed four quarts of nitrous oxide from and into a silk bag. The first feelings were similar to those produced in the last experiment; but in less than half a minute, the respiration being continued, they diminished gradually, and were succeeded by a sensation analogous to gentle pressure on all the muscles, attended by an highly pleasurable thrilling, particularly in the chest and extremities. The objects around me became dazzling, and my hearing more acute. Towards the last inspirations, the thrilling increased, the sense of muscular power became greater, and at last an irresistible propensity

action was indulged in ; I recollect but indistinctly what followed ;
now that my motions were various and violent.

These effects very soon ceased after respiration. In ten minutes,
ad recovered my natural state of mind. The thrilling in the
remities, continued longer than the other sensations.'

In the course of his experiments, he was induced to try
effect of the inhalation of other gases, in his own person.
e shall extract the very striking account of the feelings pro-
ced by respiring pure hydro-carbonate, as the experiment
s never hazarded before by any philosopher, and probably
l not be repeated :

For this purpose, I introduced into a silk bag, four quarts of
nearly pure, which was carefully produced from the decom-
ition of water by charcoal an hour before, and which had a very
ng and disagreeable smell.

'My friend, Mr James Tobin, jun. being present, after a forced
anstion of my lungs, the nose being accurately closed, I made
ee inspirations and expirations of the hydrocarbonate. The first
piration produced a sort of numbness and loss of feeling in the
st and about the pectoral muscles. After the second inspiration,
ost all power of perceiving external things, and had no distinct
sation except a terrible oppression on the chest. During the third
piration, this feeling disappeared, I seemed sinking into annihila-
n, and had just power enough to drop the mouth-piece from my
closed lips. A short interval must have passed during which I
pired common air, before the objects about me were distinguishable.
recollecting myself, I faintly articulated, " *I do not think I shall*
." Putting my finger on the wrist, I found my pulse thread-like
d beating with excessive quickness.

' In less than a minute, I was able to walk, and the painful op-
ession on the chest directed me to the open air.

pain in the forehead and between the eyes, with transient pains in the chest and extremities.

'Towards night these affections gradually diminished. At ten,* no disagreeable feeling except weakness remained. I slept sound, and awoke in the morning very feeble and very hungry. No recurrence of the symptoms took place, and I had nearly recovered my strength by the evening.'

Mr. Davy was afterward exposed to considerable inconvenience by attempting to breathe nitrous gas: but we should exceed our limits were we to detail the particulars of this, and of several other experiments of the same nature. We shall, however, extract Mr. D.'s description of his feelings on respiring a quantity of nitrous oxide, after he had been inclosed in an atmosphere of the gas, by being shut up in a *breathing-box* for an hour and a quarter:

'A thrilling extending from the chest to the extremities was almost immediately produced. I felt a sense of tangible extension highly pleasurable in every limb; my visible impressions were dazzling and apparently magnified; I heard distinctly every sound in the room and was perfectly aware of my situation.† By degrees as the pleasurable sensations increased, I lost all connection with external things; trains of vivid visible images rapidly passed through my mind, and were connected with words in such a manner, as to produce perceptions perfectly novel. I existed in a world of newly connected and newly modified ideas. I theorised; I imagined that I made discoveries. When I was awakened from this semi-delirious trance by Dr. Kinglake, who took the bag from my mouth, indignation and pride were the first feelings produced by the sight of the persons about me. My emotions were enthusiastic and sublime; and for a minute I walked round the room perfectly regardless of what was said to me. As I recovered my former state of mind, I felt an inclination to communicate the discoveries I had made during the experiment. I endeavoured to recall the ideas, they were feeble and indistinct; one collection of terms, however, presented itself: and with the most intense belief and prophetic manner, I exclaimed to Dr. Kinglake, "*Nothing exists but thoughts!—the universe is composed of impressions, ideas, pleasures, and pains!*"

It appears, however, that these sensations were not so powerfully excited in some subsequent trials.

In the next division, we are presented with reports of the feelings experienced by several persons on respiring the nitrous oxide. As we have made a large extract from Dr.

'* I ought to observe, that between eight and ten, I took, by the advice of Dr. Beddoes, two or three doses of diluted nitric acid.'

'† In all these experiments, after the first minute, my cheeks became purple.'

Beddoes's *Notice* on this subject *, we shall pass over those which are now before us.—Respecting the probable efficacy of this gas in diseases, the author speaks with just reserve.—He concludes his book with these words:

> 'Pneumatic chemistry, in its application to medicine, is an art in infancy, weak, almost useless, but apparently possessed of capabilities of improvement. To be rendered strong and mature, she must be nourished by facts, strengthened by exercise, and cautiously directed in the application of her powers by rational scepticism.'

An account is given in the appendix, of some experiments on the effect of the gases on vegetation. Mr. Davy seems to hint that some advantage may be derived from attending to the action of hydrocarbonate on this process.

From the view which we have taken of this work, we apprehend that our scientific readers will be sufficiently enabled to appreciate its merits. The uncommon ingenuity, the great accuracy, the philosophical candour, and the adventurous perseverance of the author, must ensure him the favourable attention of the public.

Art. VI. *The Pride of Birth: a Satire.* In Imitation of the Eighth Satire of Juvenal. With Notes Critical and Illustrative, adapted to the Characters and Manners of the present Age. 4to, 3s. Cawthorn. 1801.

The author of this imitation professes to have departed from the character of his original, in several instances; and in particular, to have substituted gaiety for the sententious dignity of Juvenal. This change of manner must in strictness be said to preclude imitation; yet, if the poignancy of the Roman satirist had been preserved, we should have overlooked some deviations:—but the whole turn of these verses is so unlike Juvenal, that the satirist might have omitted the Latin passages at the bottom of his pages, without prejudice to his own fame. Juvenal is ardent, impetuous, and hardy; his style, though it sometimes departs from the purity of the Augustan age, is nervous, and in general happy:—but the present translator is languid and diffuse; his versification is often drawling and spiritless; and his tendency to prose is so decided, that the jest (where any thing jocular appears) is generally thrown into a note. In the style of the ex-minister at war, to whom the performance is dedicated, we may pronounce it a *negative* imitation.—Justice to this young bard, however, requries us to allow that he may plead more than one example, "*vitiis imitabile,*" for his inconsistency; since Pope, in his imitations of Horace, excellent as they are, assumed a style very different from the playfulness of the Roman poet. It becomes, therefore, so much the more necessary for critics to warn young writers against the mistakes of men who are so justly eminent.

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* See Rev. N. S. vol. xxx. p. 405.

After having thus freely expressed our opinion of the general merits of this poem, we shall present our readers with a specimen, from which they may form their own conclusions respecting the execution:

> ' A generous birth may *there* a lustre throw,
> Where *kindred* veins with *kindred* virtue glow:
> No boasted sires can cure a son's disgrace,
> To *other* crimes they add an *injur'd* race.
> Does Spencer's blood within thy bosom roll,
> And Spencer's blood inspire with Spencer's soul:
> Here make thy boast of birth, 'tis wisely done,
> A *noble* sire exalts a *noble* son.
> But does that blood no generous worth impart,
> And, born of *Kings*, you bear a *peasant's* heart:
> Oh hide thy sires disgrac'd, save half thy shame,
> Thy records burn, and take some *humbler* name;
> Hide, if thou canst, thou art so nobly born,
> And sink like Orleans to a beggar's spawn.
> ' Cease, then; or wouldst thou have us lower bow,
> Your worth, my Lord, and not your titles show:
> What though thy line to Alfred's self extend,
> Or, higher still, to Japhet's sons ascend,
> A generous mind a borrow'd Fame would hate,
> *Thyself*, and not thy *sires*, must make thee great.
> ' Let Horsley's firmness in thy bosom shine,
> Let Wentworth's worth and Falkland's faith be thine;
> Like Churchill, conquer in thy country's cause;
> Like Kenyon, be the guardian of her laws:
> Blush not though Heralds should record thee base,
> Thy *worth*, thy *patent*, take the highest place,
> And ask'd your Order, fear no fool's rebukes,
> But boldly answer,—'Tis above yon *Duke*'s.
> ' Heroes and Kings are noble sires, 'tis true,
> But what are all these noble sires to you?
> Nought of these fathers but their names you bear,
> That virtue lost which made these names so dear.
> You think their titles can their honours *claim*,
> But worthless things are sunk by noble *names*.
> What should we give our fictive fancy scope,
> Call Gifford Dryden, or Mathias Pope,
> Though B—d—re's leaden self should read the strain,
> Such Popes would sing, such Drydens soar in vain;
> Should Laureat Pye in Wharton's title drone,
> Is there who'd read and think 'twas Wharton's own,

For SHAKESPEARE's self would shameless IRELAND pass,
Is there who'd hail the Lion in the Ass?
A change of name should rose a nettle make,
The rose's this, and that the nettle's, take,
Is there an idiot of so foul a nose,
Would smell the nettle and reject the rose?"

Respecting the notes, which compose a large share of this amphlet, we have little to observe. They abound in political llusions, in compliments to the late ministers, and in satire or what is meant for satire) on the opposition.—We hope that e author's zeal for the glory of Mr. Pitt and Mr. Wyndham too disinterested, to be affected by the events which have ecently deprived those gentlemen of the powerful patronage hich they lately possessed.

RT VII. *Elements of Perspective;* containing the Nature of Light and Colours, and the Theory and Practice of Perspective, in regard to Lines, Surfaces, and Solids, with its Application to Architecture. To which are added Rules for Painting in Transparent Water Colours. By John Wood, Master of the Drawing Academy established at Edinburgh by the Honourable the Board of Trustees for Manufactories, &c. 8vo. pp. 150. and 18 Plates. 6s. Boards, Cawthorn, &c. 1799.

having been directed to what are esteemed higher subjects than Conic Sections, they have of late been but little cultivated on their own account; and the bulk of treatises on their properties has been gradually diminishing.

Perspective is an art, and is derived from that branch of Geometry which investigates the projection of a body of any figure whatever, on a plane any how inclined; the projection being made by lines issuing from a given point. Thus generally considered, it presents a boundless field of contemplation; since the figure of bodies may be infinitely varied, and the plane on which the projection is made may be infinitely inclined. In this case, it would be necessary to call in all the powers of analysis to aid the inquiry: but this research would be merely speculative and of pure curiosity; because, when the practical utility is considered, the investigation of the rules and methods of perspective is extremely abridged: since artists require very few rules, and such as will rather prevent them from falling into gross errors, than instruct them to delineate exactly. Suppose an artist has to represent a certain curve, the boundary of some body: if his drawing be such that the eye discovers no fault in it, the object and end of the representation are completely answered; and it would be a needless and unprofitable office to prove by measurement that the delineation is faulty, as not exactly coinciding with that which would be given by geometrical investigation. The eye is the painter's rule and compass, and it is sufficient if the judgment of our vision justifies the portraiture of objects *. Hence it is of little or no consequence, in a practical point of view, to know that the representation of a circular arc, viewed obliquely, ought to be by an elliptical or parabolic arc; and the artist who delineates architectural objects would scarcely put himself to the fruitless trouble of describing an elliptical arc, in order to represent the beads which surround circular columns.

We are not of the opinion of the author quoted in the note below, that perspective is an *un*certain art, for we deem it a *certain* art: that is to say, there is a method of accurately delineating, on a vertical plane, (or on any other with a given inclination,) any object, of which the figure and position are ascertained:—but it is an art soon learnt, and of small efficacy towards forming a painter; and we think that a person may paint most exquisitely, without knowing any one of the geometrical demonstrations on which the rules of perspective are founded.—The author of the present treatise, it will appear, differs from us in many instances:

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* "*Nam Geometralem nunquam sunt corpora juxta*
Mensuram depicta oculis, sed qualia visa." FRESNOY.

' There have, no doubt, been many elementary books published with the same intention; but, as they are designed for persons unacquainted with the mathematics, their authors have of course been under the necessity, instead of explaining the real principles of Perspective, only to furnish the student with the practical method of performing some of the easy problems in this art; which knowledge they regard as the only part necessary to be known for the art of design. And indeed the artists themselves have in general an unfortunate idea, that a knowledge of the mathematics has only a tendency to cramp the freedom of the imagination, and that geometry furnishes rules that are only so many fetters to men of real genius. They assert also, that those persons who distinguish themselves by a strong predilection for mathematical pursuits have their views and sentiments on other subjects remarkably narrow and contracted, their general habits of thinking illiberal and vulgar, and that the mathematical sciences, however important they may be deemed, in fact terminate in speculation. This will be found to be the general language of those men who have paid but a slight attention to subjects of this kind, and are therefore very willing to persuade themselves that the cloud in which they are involved necessarily arises from the subject itself.

' It would be by no means advisable that an artist should enter into by which we work, and ignorant of which the strongest intellect may be fruitlessly or deviously employed.'

Mr. Wood's treatise relates not merely to perspective: he adds some remarks, &c. on the Nature of Light, on the Eye, on Direct Vision, and on Images formed by Reflection. In page 5th we find a faulty definition of the centre of a lens; at least it differs from what is usually given in books of optics.

We must confess that this work does not much please us: it admits subjects which have no connection with perspective, and its discussion of them is not sufficiently full and satisfactory to justify their introduction. As a speculative perspective treatise, it might have been made much more full; and as a practical book it is now much too long. Considerable reading appears in the notes, perhaps rather too sedulously displayed.

Art. VIII. *Sepulchral Monuments in Great Britain:* applied to illustrate the History of Families, Manners, Habits, and Arts, at the different Periods from the Norman Conquest to the Seventeenth Century. With Introductory Observations. Part II. containing the Fifteenth Century. Folio. pp. 420, and 131 Plates. 9l. 9s. Boards. Nichols, Payne, &c.

Introduction and Indexes to Vol. II. of the Sepulchral Monuments. Folio. pp. ccclii. and 265, with 40 Plates. 6l. 6s. Boards.

ANTIQUITIES furnish a very pleasing study for the inquiring and reflecting mind; and while such large and expensive works as that which is now before us are patronized, there seems to be little reason for Mr. Gough's complaint that this science is 'losing her votaries.' Curiosity is not less solicitous of investigating the past than of anticipating the future. The same principle, which prompted the erection of sepulchral monuments, contributes to make them interesting to posterity; and the man of genius seldom, perhaps, contemplates the memorials of the mighty dead, without cherishing the pleasing hope of being himself remembered beyond the grave. As the most celebrated artists have been employed to record the magnificence and fame of princes, conquerors, and dignified ecclesiastics, their tombs may be considered as forming an instructive lecture on the progress of literature and the arts; and more information, we think, is to be collected from the prosecution of this subject, than may at first be imagined. On Mr. Gough's singular industry in this line of inquiry, we have formerly bestowed ample commendation (see M. Rev. vol. lxxviii. p. 277); and we now owe him the praise of having, by the exercise of great perseverance, completed a mass of information respecting antient *Sepulture,* which will be sought in vain in the pages of any other individual writer. The Second Part, or Volume, now on our table, is accompanied by an Introduction almost as ponderous and expensive as itself; which treats of the mode of sepulture from the earliest period of history among the Greeks and Romans to the primitive Christians, and of the various ceremonies with which it was accompanied;—of barrows and heaps of stones;—of burning the dead;—of stone chests and coffins;—of the materials in which bodies were shrouded;—of pots found with bodies;—of embalming;—of armorial bearings on tombs in England and Scotland;—of crosses, crosiers, skeletons, figures in shrouds, &c.;—of slabs with brasses and cenotaphs;—of funeral ceremonies and processions;—of shrines, vaults, and mausolea;—of officers appointed to superintend sepulchres, anniversaries, and funeral charges;—of epitaphs on parchment, and of portraits painted over tombs;—of trophies and atchievements;—of habits;—of the different figures on monuments, and of the manner of representing the several attributes of the saints;—of epitaphs and inscriptions;—of alphabets and forms of letters;—of crosses, sigils, and numerals;—of mottoes, rebuses, and punning epitaphs;—of portraits in missals;—with a great variety of other particulars, for the very enumeration of which we can afford neither space nor time. This glance that the deceased had not died a violent death. The use of coffins is of the highest antiquity. In the procession to the pile, or the grave, *lights* were used, which gave the name of *funeral, (funera à funalibus candelis sebo vel cerâ circumdatis dicta censentur*, says Servius;) to which the antients added music and singing, to imply, according to Macrobius's fanciful reason, *the soul's return to the origin of harmony, or heaven.* The Heathens also hired mourners; and at public funerals it was not unusual to introduce buffoons and dancers. At that of Vespasian, a pantomime, representing and caricaturing the emperor himself, was exhibited at the head of the procession. Slaves, manumitted by the will of the deceased, preceded the funeral. To swell the parade, a great number of beds were sometimes carried, on which were placed the images of the deceased's family, which were removed from the temples and public niches for the occasion. Sylla had 6000; Marcellus 600. The Romans vied so much with each other in the splendor of their funerals, that laws of restraint were inserted among those of the twelve tables. In St. Chrysostom's time, it was become a fashion to have horses with mourning trappings led at funerals. Originally, the nearest relations, or the heirs, were the bearers; afterward they were hired persons: but the corpse of the Emperor Augustus was borne on the shoulders of the senators. In succeeding ages, the office of bearing the body was changed into that of supporting the pall; the ignorance of which ceremony has led Aldovera, as Mr. G. remarks, into a pleasant mistake in his account of the funeral of Sir Isaac Newton; who, he tells his countrymen, was carried to Westminster Abbey, the royal burial-place, *on the shoulders* of the Lord High Chancellor and three Peers of the realm.

Among the Greeks, the slain in battle were buried at the public expence. The bones were first arranged under a tent; they were then collected in coffins, according to their tribe, and deposited in a public monument; after which some person appointed by the state pronounced the funeral oration. This custom of funeral eulogies descended to the Romans; who were imitated by the primitive Christians in their orations over the remains of the martyrs; and hence the practice of funeral sermons has descended to us.

There were two modes of disposing of the dead body among the antients, that of inhumation, and that of burning. The former was certainly the older custom; and the latter prevailed among the Romans, as Pliny tells us, from the practice of digging up the bodies in the civil wars. Many families, however, adhered to the old mode; while others preferred the destruction of the body on the funeral pile. When this new fashion was once introduced, it was probably continued as a family distinction.

Sepulchres were private property, and the spot chosen for them was as near the high road as possible; whence the propriety of the epitaph or inscription being addressed to the traveller, (*Siste, viator*,) which has been absurdly imitated when the place of interment was transferred from the way-side to the chancel or the cloister. The usual form of the heathen epitaph is well known.—The antients had also rites subsequent to funerals, attended with a variety of ceremonies and superstitions. The best idea of a Roman private funeral, says Mr. Gough, may be formed from the directions given by Propertius to his Cynthia, in Eleg. x. 17—36.

A considerable addition is made by Mr. G., in the Introduction now before us, to the history of those tumuli called *barrows*, which are of the remotest antiquity, and are found in all quarters of the world. Herodotus, the father of history, mentions the barrow of Alyattes, the second of that name, king of Lydia, father of Crœsus, raised 2363 years ago, and seen by Dr. Chandler in A.D. 1764, five miles from Sart, the antient Sardis. This tumulus or barrow, formed by the joint exertions of the merchants, the labourers, and the prostitutes, was about a mile in circumference, one thousand three hundred feet broad, and terminated with a piece of water, called the Gygean Lake, still remaining. According to the same historian, the Gerrhi, a people of Scythia, raised barrows; and it is to be observed that they are also to be found in America. These are not only the most simple but the most durable memorials; and the custom of their erection continued through a long series of ages. The place of the interment of Achilles was thus distinguished, whose barrow is 620 years older than that of Alyattes; and Pharamond was buried A.D. 428, under one of these conical heaps.

So closely has Mr. G. investigated this matter, that to him there appears no Gordian knot in the whole system of barrow-burial. He observes that barrows are not positive proofs of a battle, but in America are necessary appendages of great settlements. It is farther remarked that much of the antient dress, particularly of the fastenings of it, may be learnt from the ornaments found in tumuli: but the relics there interred are not always indications of pagan sepulture, since many Christian rites are founded on the Gentile, and in the early ages of Christianity were blended together; so that, at the first glance, it may be difficult to decide whether the tumuli belonged to Pagans or to Christians.—Some additional particulars on this subject will be found in our *Appendix* to Vol. xxxiv. (published with this Review,) p. 480, &c.

From the practice of barrow interment, originated the custom among our ancestors, of covering their burying-places with heaps of stones, called *Cairns;* to contribute to which was esteemed a mark of respect to the deceased. Hence "I'll add a stone to your cairn" was formerly a proverbial expression of friendship among the Highlanders.

The *Cromlech*, says Mr. Gough, was *somehow* a Danish monument. This remark would have been equally valuable without the *somehow.*—We are, however, less disposed to censure this laborious antiquary for any verbal inelegancy, than for his partiality to the monkish ecclesiastics of past times, and for his omission of a just castigation of their craft and villany. His account of *stone coffins* introduces the mention of the boy eight years old, crucified by the Jews at Lincoln, A. D. 1255, as the ecclesiastics of that time gave out, in derision of the crucifixion of our Blessed Saviour. He gravely adds, from M. Paris, in the following page, that the Jews fattened the child with milk for ten days before they crucified him. We are surprized that this wicked calumny on the Jews, invented for the purpose of plundering that defenceless people, should be narrated by any modern historian without the most pointed indignation. When Mr. G. describes the structure of this child's coffin, by means of which the priests of the day were enabled to play tricks with his blood; and records other stories of children crucified by Jews, which in other places were also made pretexts for extortion; we are astonished that he should proceed thus to sum up the evidence: 'Whether the child was actually *crucified*, it is now impossible to ascertain: that it was murdered in some very cruel manner, we have every traditional and historical evidence to believe. For we cannot suppose, even in times when the laws were not so well defined, and the administration of justice was more arbitrary, that so many would have been found guilty and have suffered for a crime, if there had been no foundation for the accusation.'—So far from there being any impossibility in this supposition, we conceive that it will occur to most of Mr. G.'s readers. The circumstances observed on opening the coffin stamp no authenticity on the calumnious relation. A boy may have been cruelly put to death, or marked after death with five wounds, in imitation of the five wounds of Christ; and this transaction might readily be imputed to the Jews, as a pretext for sentencing them to death, and confiscating their property. To believe otherwise would be credulity in the extreme. No contemporary historian deserves credit when he relates such improbabilities; and good sense, as well as Christian charity, forbids faith on such occasions. Notwithstanding Mr. G.'s farther assertion, that 'it is scarcely possible to doubt the truth of such facts, or to suppose them the practice of the times to extort money from a body of men on other accounts sufficiently obnoxious;' we are of opinion that every liberal reader will put this very construction on the circumstances recorded. After the Jews had so severely suffered for one crime of this kind, would they repeat it in the various instances in which they here stand charged with it? When we read of children stolen and kept concealed for a year, of their being fattened with milk, of being crucified, and then buried with the body covered over with Hebrew inscriptions, we lament the credulity of the age, and the horrible consequences of that servility: but let all such stuff be now treated with the contempt which it deserves.—We have perhaps said enough on this point; and yet we cannot refrain from reiterating our astonishment at Mr. G.'s doubt that the motive in this calumny and persecution of the Jews was avarice, when he adds, 'It appears, indeed, that in the first of the instances here recited, the crime was commuted for a large sum of money: in that at Lincoln, death and confiscation kept pace with each other; but in the others no mention is made of any fine.' If the fine be not mentioned, it must be supposed that there was no departure from the ordinary practice in these cases.—Our readers are intitled to an apology for having been detained so long on such a subject.

After having detailed at some length M. Thouret's account of a very extraordinary change to which the human body, under certain circumstances, is subject after death,—composed from observations made by him on the removal of bodies from the church and church-yard of the Holy Innocents, at Paris*,—Mr. Gough remarks: (p. cii.)

> 'These facts serve to shew how little foundation there is for the opinion commonly entertained relative to the conversion of the dead body into earth, no such appearance having been observed in any of the coffins that were entire. Neither is what is usually imagined true, that the body is, in general, destroyed by worms, as these are found only near the surface of the earth, or in bodies that have been exposed to the air. M. Thouret's observations have convinced him, that human bodies consigned to the earth insensibly exhale and evaporate in volatile principles; and for this reason it is, he thinks, that the soil of burial places does not perceptibly accumulate.'

We shall leave our readers to their own speculations on this passage; and from the immediate subject of death, let us turn to contemplate the display of pride and vanity on the monuments of the dead. Mr. Dallaway * is probably correct in stating that the custom of having armorial bearings on the shield began with the monuments of the crusaders; for we find that few persons in England quartered arms before 1388; so that it should seem that the fashion of armorial bearings, which are now displayed with such pride, sprang from the most mad and disgraceful projects in which the nations of Europe ever engaged.

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* Our readers have had various accounts of these facts and observations, in different volumes of our Review.

Having mentioned, in our account of Mr. Dallaway's Anecdotes of the Arts †, that the general practice of antient Heathens was to abstain from melancholy representations in their cenotaphs, urns, and hypogeia, in opposition to the custom among modern Christians of figuring the most shocking representations of death on monuments and tomb-stones; we deem it proper to insert what Mr. G. has advanced on this subject, though in opposition to our own remark:

> 'Skeletons are not unfrequent on the monuments of classical antiquity: Count Caylus has given one in a cave or catacomb near the antient Sydon; but he describes it as a body wrapt up in funeral linen. Gori describes a sarcophagus on which, among the other figures, was Pluto in his chariot carrying off a soul, preceded by Mercury going into a round building, near which lay a skeleton. In the *Museum Florentinum* by Gori, Tab. xc. f. 3. is on a gem "*bubulcus duplici canens tibia saltanti mortis scelcto.*" Gori says, a figure of death was brought to antient feasts; see Burman in Petron. c. 34. *Larva argentea.*
>
> 'Hippocrates had consecrated to Apollo, in his temple at Delphi, a brazen skeleton, which Pausanias thus describes: *Εν τοις αναθημασι του Απολλωνος μιμημα τι χαλκουν χρονιωτερου κατεσκληκοτος τε ηδη τας σαρκας και τα οστα υπολειπομενου μονα.*'

This extract by no means establishes the position with which it commences. On the doctrine of the grammar, *exceptio confirmat regulam*, our assertion maintains its ground. Most of the instances here detailed do not relate to monuments. It is certain that the skeleton was not a favourite figure with the antients, and their artists very rarely exhibited it even in the repository of the dead.

As it is impossible to follow this author regularly through the great variety of matter which he has brought together in this Introduction, our account must consist rather of detached specimens than of a regular analysis; for we have not only descriptions of the monuments of the Greeks and Romans, and of our own tombs and chapels, but also of the superb Mausolea of the East. We must pass over much that is worth the notice of those who are studying sepulchral antiquities, and content ourselves with one or two additional passages from this elaborate preface.

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* "Inquiries into the Science of Heraldry," p. 104.

† See Rev. Jan. 1800. vol. xxxiv.

Notwithstanding his ardor in exploring our churches for the tombs which they contain, Mr. G. manifests great humanity, and a proper consideration for the living, in reprobating the pernicious custom of burying in our places of public worship. He recommends cemeteries out of towns and cities, and gives an account of an extensive receptacle of this kind at Pisa.

Much space is dedicated to the subject of monumental devices, dates, and inscriptions; and many instances are given of the false wit and bad taste which our ancestors exhibited: as BRE on a tun, for Breton; MOR on a tun, for Morton: the letters silk with a horse represented, for the name *Silkstede*; and a few vine tendrils scattered over a tun, for the name of *Mydylton.*

'The composition of epitaphs, (Mr. G. remarks, p. cclxix.) must be referred to the depositaries of every species of learning, the religious. The names of our early epitaph-makers are as difficult to ascertain as those of our architects or painters. In the fifteenth century we are sure of John Whethamstead, Abbot of St. Albans; whose verses recorded by Weaver, do honour to his monastery, already distinguished by producing so many learned men. We trace his munificence and poetry in all the churches of its dependance; and in his period, for at least fifty years, from 1392 to 1464, we trace also the revival of classical literature among us.'—

'Leonine verses, which are often found on tombs, are properly Roman hexameter or pentameter rhimed, in which measure, sense and syntax are sacrificed to sound and jingle. Pasquier ascribes them to Leoninus, a French monk of St. Victor at Marseilles about 1135, the most popular and almost only Latin poet of his time in France; but the epitaphs of William Warren, Earl of Surrey in our own country, and William the Conqueror in France, are proofs that Leonine verse obtained before Leoninus.'—

'Mr. Warton asserts that the quatrain stanza, with alternate rhyme, was scarcely ever used, under any circumstances, by the elder poets, except in translations; on which Mr. Denne observes, "I am rather inclined to think that very many pieces of this kind of metre, for instance ballads, have perished, because committed to memory and tradition only; and I am clear it is to be met with in a species of versifying which the historian of English Poetry has not noticed, and that is the sepulchral. Whilst pursuing the enquiry I discovered more antient epitaphs in the vulgar tongue than I had expected to have seen, and it added to my surprize that so many of them were in rhyme, and two of them solely in two quatrain stanzas, and all the three are in the sixteenth century.—It is an obvious remark, that these epitaphs were preserved in consequence of their being carved in stone: *ære perennius*, because not fusible, and so easily transmutable into silver."

If the use of *brass* has been a temptation to violate the repositories of the dead, the expensive attempts of the rich to secure posthumous reputation, by the use of precious metals on their tombs, have only contributed to the more early extinction of their names.

Instead of following Mr. G. into Salisbury cathedral, where he comments on the alterations which it has undergone, we shall close our notice of this Introduction with the account of a Monkish funeral, with which it concludes:

> "*Processio quedam funebris antiqua, quâ cadaver vespillonibus tedas ferentibus precessum est, et Fratribus Mendicantibus asportatum, sequente magnâ collachrymantium turbâ.*
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> 1. *Vespillones atratis vestibus cereos magnos cadaveri preferentes.*
> 2. *Frater niger, sive predicator, ordinis Sancti Dominici.*
> 3. *Frater leucopheatus, sive minor, ordinis Sancti Francisci.*
> 4. *Frater albus, sive Carmeliticus, ordinis beate Marie de Monte Carmeli.*
> 5. *Frater Eremiticus, ordinis sancti Augustini.*
> 6. *Consanguinei, affines, proximi, pauperes, populique plurimi alii subsequentes condolentesque.*
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> "*Notandum est, quod cùm unicuique domui mendicantium aliquam eleemosinam dono dederit vir mortuus, tum cadaver ejus veste fratris mendicantis indutum est; idemque uniuscujusque ordinis frater unus linteolis ad ecclesiam sèpulchrum versùs asportat, et in hunc modum eorum omnium confratri agnoscitur mortuus, et bonorum operum cujuscunque ordinis mendicantium (uti asseritur) fit particeps. Nec mirum igitur, quòd super tumulos suos, et monumenta sepulchralia, laicorum etiam mortuorum effigies, vestibus religiosis a sculptoribus indutæ, non raro videntur expressæ.**"

Having dismissed the prefatory matter, we come now to speak of Mr. G.'s Second Volume; which, though it will be found to furnish an ample feast to the monumental antiquary, we must dispatch with all possible brevity. It contains an account of nearly six hundred monuments, erected to the memory of persons who flourished in the fifteenth century, and is embellished and illustrated with one hundred and thirty-one large copper-plates. It commences with the monument of Geffrey Chaucer, the father of English Poetry, who died in 1400, in the reign of Henry IV.; and finishes with that of the Abbess Harvey, who died in 1500, in the reign of Henry VII. We cannot be expected to give even a list of the tombs of kings, nobles, bishops, warriors, &c. which are here particularly mentioned, with their epitaphs exhibited at length: it must suffice for us to extract one specimen from this descriptive catalogue of the monuments of the fifteenth century; which shall be part of the account of that of William of Wykeham, in the year 1404; whose monument, if not of a species peculiar to this age, was very prevalent in it, viz. the *Sepulchral Chapel.*

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* Harl. MSS. 4938. p. 11.

'The brightest name in the list of our architects is that artist and patron of arts, WILLIAM of Wykeham; a prelate whose magnificent charities yet exist, both in the benefits he calculated for posterity, and in the edifices erected on his own designs for perpetuating those pious bounties; who, from being clerk of the works, rose to be Bishop of Winchester, and Lord Chancellor, and Prime Minister to Edward III.'—'His buildings at Queenborough are levelled with the ground. The principal gate of his castle at Windsor happily withstood an injudicious levelling; and the castle itself looks down with disdain on the modern erections that occupy its ditch. His cathedral remains unblemished by modern taste, and his literary foundations flourish in unimpaired splendor. His architect at Winchester was William Winford, whose name should be added to the list of our ancient builders, though he were only the master-mason or *cementarius.* As he was thought equal to the execution of a church, it is probable that the execution of the Bishop's sepulchral chapel was also committed to him.

'This is called in his will a *new building* (*capella per me de novo constructa*). Though the other ornaments of his oratory are destroyed, yet his monument remains there intire and unhurt to this day. It is of white marble of very elegant workmanship, [illegible], with his effigies in pontifical robes lying along upon it; and on a plate of brass running round the edges of the upper table of it, is the following inscription in Latin verse, of the style of that age.

"Wilhelmus dictus Wykeham jacet hic nece victus,
Istius ecclesie presul. reparavit eamque:
Largus erat dapifer: probat hoc cum divite pauper.
Consiliis pariter regni fuerat bene dexter.
Hunc docet esse pium fundatio collegiorum:
Oxoniae primum stat, Wintoniaeque secundum.
Jugiter oretis tumulum quicunque videtis.
Pro tantis meritis ut sit ubi vita perennis."

'The small prints of this chapel and monument, from a drawing of Isaac Taylor the surveyor, prefixed to Bishop Lowth's Life of this great prelate, have done it as much justice as the scale permitted. His crosier, preserved in the chapel of New College, is a fine specimen of the elegant arts among us; and an instance, as Mr. Walpole observes, "how well the pomp of prelacy was served by ingenious artists."

'Sepulchral chapels came more in fashion in this century; by which I mean those which were erected professedly for the interment of the founder, and in which his own body was actually buried. For in the preceding centuries the many chapels that filled the nave and choir both of our principal and parochial churches were receptacles of the dead, and in many instances appropriated to lords of manors and their families, whether those lords were their founders or not. It was also no uncommon thing to build chapels for the purpose of saying mass for the souls of the founders thereof, whose bodies were deposited at some distance from them; as that of the Black Prince in the undercroft, and of Henry IV. in the North wall of the choir at Canterbury. The chapels that incircle the choir at Tewksbury have an uniformity which bespeak most of them to be the work of one abbot in the preceding century. But the instances of chapels erected for the express purpose of depositing a particular patron or family abound in the present and succeeding century, insomuch that the name of the saint to whom the chapel was dedicated has been absorbed in that of the bishop or lord who erected it.'

After having extracted a passage from Lowth, on the situation of Wykeham's chapel, Mr. Gough adds:

'The respect paid to this sepulchral chapel by Cromwell's express care, when his soldiers committed so much havock in this church, reflects honour on his memory. Nor is less attention paid to it by those students to whom Wykeham was so liberal a benefactor. I heartily wish the silly mischievousness of the students at Westminster were as well restrained, who, to the eternal reproach of their superiors, to whose care the church and school are committed, are suffered to deface the finest specimens of antient and modern statuary with daily havock; of which so many fresh proofs have occurred since the publication of the first volume of this work.'

We trust that the hint, with which this extract concludes, will not pass unnoticed by those to whose consideration it is particularly directed.—We shall only add, in conclusion, that, as the Gothic architecture appears to have flourished in great perfection during the fifteenth century, many of the monuments here detailed are beautiful specimens of art, and merit the contemplation of those who wish to study the most improved and finished Gothic. In the next century, the Grecian style became blended with it, producing that barbarous and heterogeneous assemblage with which all correct taste must be completely disgusted.

The numerous copper-plates in this work are beautifully engraved; and neither attention nor expence seems to have been spared to gratify the lovers of antiquity. It may truly be remarked, that Mr. Gough has been uncommonly alive among the monuments of the dead.

ART. IX. *Secret Memoirs of the Court of Petersburg:* particularly towards the End of the Reign of Catharine II. and the Commencement of that of Paul I. Forming a Description of the Manners of Petersburg at the Close of the Eighteenth Century; and containing various Anecdotes, collected during a Residence of Ten Years in that Capital. Together with Remarks on the Education of the Grand-Dukes, the Manners of the Ladies, and the Religion of the People. Translated from the French. 8vo. 2 Vols. 10s. Boards. (2d Edit. one Vol.) 8vo. 7s. Longman and Co. 1800.

RUSSIA formerly occupied, in every sense of the word, the back ground in the politics of Europe: but of late it has been brought forwards on the stage, and the circumstances of its history are sought with peculiar avidity. While statesmen have endeavoured to develope the schemes of gigantic ambition which the cabinet of that country is said to cherish, others have satisfied themselves with delineating the character of its court, and the portraits of its chief personages. These representations may gratify curiosity, though they will administer no source of pleasing reflection. The memoirs of a people rising into civilization might be expected to afford lessons of simplicity and virtue; and even the court might be supposed to exhibit a degree of decorum not to be found in states long corrupted by refinement and luxury: but how little will the detail now before us accord with such ideas! While the inhabitants of the Russian Empire have, in general, remained rude and illiterate, the court has displayed a splendour and a voluptuousness which have not been surpassed in those of the most polished people, and its history is the picture of gross vice and shameless profligacy. When the august wearers of crowns sanction lawless indulgence by their example, vice assumes an effrontery and a consequence which are highly detrimental to national morality. While we therefore lament the errors of sovereigns in this respect, an ample tribute of anonymous, we wish him at least to discover a praise-worthy motive. This biographer of the Court of Russia keeps us in the dark respecting his motives and prejudices; and his work is left to speak for itself.

The Empress Catharine II. is drawn with a masterly pencil: but her frailties and passions as a woman are brought too much forwards, and with too little reprobation. The reader will perceive the truth of this remark from the following delineation of her character:

> ‘ She had two passions, which never left her but with her last breath: the love of man, which degenerated into licentiousness; and the love of glory, which sunk into vanity. By the first of these passions, she was never so far governed as to become a Messalina, but she often disgraced both her rank and her sex: by the second, she was led to undertake many laudable projects, which were seldom completed, and to engage in unjust wars, from which she derived at least that kind of fame which never fails to accompany success.’—
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> ‘ Let not the misfortunes and abuses of her reign give to the private character of this princess too dark and repulsive a shade! She appeared to be thoroughly humane and generous, as all who approached her experienced: all who were admitted to her intimacy were delighted with the good-natured sallies of her wit: all who lived with her were happy. Her manners were gay and licentious, but she still preserved an exterior decorum, and even her favourites always treated her with respect. Her love never excited disgust, nor her familiarity contempt. She might be deceived, won, seduced, but she would never suffer herself to be governed. Her active and *regular* life, her moderation, firmness, fortitude, and even sobriety, are moral qualities which it would be highly unjust to ascribe to hypocrisy. How great might she not have been, had her heart been as well governed as her mind! She reigned over the Russians less despotic than over herself; she was never hurried away by anger, never a prey to dejection, and never indulged in transports of immoderate joy. Caprice, ill-humour, and peevishness formed no part of her character, and were never perceived in her conduct. I will not decide, whether she were truly great, but she was certainly beloved.’

It is farther added: ‘ Her crimes were the crimes of her station, and *not of her heart:* the terrible scenes of Ismail and of Prague appeared to her court to be humanity itself.’ They could not have been very shocking to Catharine’s own mind, if it be true, as we are afterward informed, that ‘ she thirsted for the blood of all the inhabitants of Warsaw;’ and that ‘ at her palace of Tauris she constantly dined with the two pictures of the sacking of Otchakof and Ismail before her eyes; in which the painter has represented, with the most hideous accuracy, the blood flowing in streams, the limbs torn from the bodies and still palpitating, the demoniac fury of the murderers, and the convulsive agonies of the murdered.' It may be observed that the person, who can plan bloody wars, can view with complacency bloody pictures: but we cannot in these instances admit of any compliment paid to the heart, nor allow the merit of humanity to those who "wade through slaughter" to the gratification of their ambition. Conquest and success in war, detached from all considerations of justice and virtue, have been termed *glorious*; an error in the writers of poems and histories, for which nations have paid, and will perhaps continue to pay, with oceans of human blood. The biographer is forced at last to be of this opinion; which he expresses in the following animated apostrophe:

'O Catharine! dazzled by thy greatness, of which I have had a near view; charmed with thy beneficence, which rendered so many individuals happy; seduced by the thousand amiable qualities that have been admired in thee, I would fain have erected a monument to thy glory: but torrents of blood flow in upon me, and inundate my design: the chains of thirty millions of slaves ring in my ears, and deafen me; the crimes which have reigned in thy name call forth my indignation. I throw away my pen, and exclaim, "Let there be henceforth no glory without virtue! Let injustice and depravity be transmitted with no other laurels to posterity than the snakes of Nemesis!"'

'Passing at another time unexpectedly and secretly by one of his guard-houses, the officer, not knowing him, did not order out his men: upon which he instantly turned back, boxed the ears of the officer, and ordered him to be disarmed, and put under arrest.

'One day, travelling from Tzarsko-selo to Gatshina, of which the road was in the middle of a marshy forest, he suddenly recollected something, and ordered the coachman to return. "Presently, your Highness," said the coachman; "the road is here too narrow."—"How, rascal," cried Paul, "wo'nt you turn immediately?" The coachman, instead of answering, hastened to a spot where it was possible to comply: Paul, however, called to his equerry, and ordered him to arrest and punish the rebellious coachman. The equerry assured him that he would turn in a moment. Paul flew into a passion with the equerry also: "You are a pitiful scoundrel like himself," said he. "Let him overturn the carriage, let him break my neck, but let him obey me, and turn the instant I command him." During the dispute the coachman succeeded in turning, but Paul had him chastised on the spot.

'Since his accession, one of his horses stumbled with him in one of the streets of Petersburg: he alighted immediately, held a sort of council with his attendants, and the horse was condemned to receive fifty lashes with a whip. Paul caused them to be given on the spot, before the populace, and counted himself the strokes, saying, "There, Sir, that is for having stumbled with the emperor."

The head title to Chap. V. stands thus: '*Has Paul reason to fear the fate of Peter III.?*' a question which seems to intimate that such a suspicion was entertained, though the writer of these Memoirs admits not the probability of its being realized. As it is not necessary, however, that an historian should be endued with the spirit of prophecy, his ignorance of the future will not impeach his testimony in relating the past: but time has proved that this Frenchman was no decypherer of Russian destinies. Paul has *suddenly* disappeared; and his son Alexander *reigns in his stead:* of whom the following character is here given:

'He inherits from Catharine magnanimity of sentiment and an unalterable equality of temper; a mind just and penetrating, and uncommon discretion; with the alloy, however, of a cautious disposition, a circumspection unsuitable to his age, and which might be taken for dissimulation, did it not evidently proceed rather from the delicate situation in which he was placed between his father and grandmother, than from his heart, which is naturally frank and ingenuous. He possesses his mother's stature and beauty, as well as her mildness and benevolence, while in none of his features does he resemble his father. Paul, conjecturing the intentions of Catharine in favor of this son, has always felt coldly towards him; at the same time he discovers in him no resemblance of character, and no conformity of taste with himself; for Alexander appears to do what his father requires of him, from a principle of filial duty rather than compliance with his own inclinations. His humanity has acquired him the hearts of the soldiers, his good sense the admiration of the officers; he is the constant mediator between the emperor and those unhappy persons who, by some trifling neglect, may provoke his anger. He requires not the dignity of Grand-Duke of Russia to inspire sentiments of love and interest; nature has richly endowed him with the most amiable qualities, and his character of heir to the greatest empire in the world, cannot render them indifferent to humanity. Heaven, perhaps, destines him to render thirty millions of people more free than they are at present, and more worthy of being so.

'His character, however, though amiable, is passive.'

Other characters are delineated with a masterly pencil; particularly that of Gen. Suvarof, who is represented to have been 'a monster with the body of an ape and the soul of a bull-dog:' but we must quit the contemplation of persons, to notice the general subjects of the Second Volume, viz. *What Revolutions may be expected to take place in Russia—National Character—Religion—Female Government—Education—and Description of the Tauric Palace.*

The writer is persuaded that Russia is the last place in Europe which will experience revolution: yet he perceives symptoms of its being in training for that event, among which he reckons Paul's proscription of printing-houses in his dominions; for, says he, 'by attempting to suppress learning and knowlege, he has rendered them the greatest service of which he was capable.' The intermediate step to popular revolution is an enlightened aristocracy, for which Russia is said to be already ripe. It is confessed, however, that at present nothing can be done with the people; 'whose clock has not yet struck the hour of liberty.'

In the chapter on the *National Character*, we meet with the following picture of the Russian peasant, contrasted with the superior classes:

'The Russian peasant, without property, without religion, without morals, without honor, is hospitable, humane, willing to serve, gay, faithful, and brave: the farther you penetrate into the country remote from cities, the better you find him; the most savage is always the worthiest man, the farthest from the capital is the nearest to virtue; in a word, he has all those innate qualities, which remind us of patriarchal manners; his vices are only adventitious. The remains of barbarism, still exhibited by the most enlightened part of the nation, present a disgusting contrast. This barbarism is displayed in vulgarity of manners, an insulting contempt of mankind in general, disdain of inferiors, and servile fear of superiors, indifference to everything tending to improvement, ignorance of the forms of society, insolent pride, baseness, immodesty, want of patriotism and public spirit, but above all, the want of that honor which sometimes nearly answers the end of probity, and even of virtue. The half enlight-

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cated Russian is the most abject of men; he crawls like the worm, which invites the foot of the oppressor to crush him.

'This semi-barbarian is peculiarly fit for the trade of a courtier; for he is equally cruel, covetous, cowardly, and cunning: but, when speaking of a Russian, we must not affix to the word courtier those ideas of urbanity, elegance of manners, and delicacy of mind, with which the courtier is embellished in other countries.'

To this description, it is added that the Russians are extremely addicted to drunkenness, and are quite Spartans in their notions of *theft*. As a counter-balance, however, it is mentioned to their credit that they do not practise duelling, have not been prompted to massacre by religious fanaticism, and are extremely hospitable and courageous.—The veteran soldiers are said to be the hardiest of men: 'Reeking from the vapour bath, they roll themselves naked in the snow, and sleep on a bed of ice.' From the severest toil they pass to the most indolent repose, gorge themselves with impunity after long abstinence, and, with a biscuit and an onion in their pocket, will travel sixty versts a day.

This author evinces peculiar energy in his animadversions on the established *Religion* of Russia. He pronounces the Greek church to be a most absurd sect of Christianity, and represents its priests as the most despicable and despised of all persons in the country. Between this and the Catholic Church, though they are similar in their general features, one very striking difference subsists. In the latter, a man cannot marry and be a priest; while in the former he cannot be a priest without being married, and must quit his spiritual functions on his wife's decease. Necessary, however, as women are to the priesthood, they are not allowed to have *souls*; yet they are truly masculine, assert the privilege of petticoat government, and by their habits wear out that squeamish feeling called modesty. The Russian women are indeed represented as capable of reviving the race of Amazons.—We pass over other particulars, in which, we trust, the Russian ladies are here rather caricatured than pourtrayed.

It may be unnecessary to remark that *Education* can have made no great progress in Russia. Ignorance and barbarism for the most part maintain their empire; foreigners, since the French Revolution, have been viewed with suspicion; and Russian literature glimmers too faintly to enlighten that vast region of darkness.

In the description of the Tauric Palace, is introduced an account of the very splendid and costly entertainment given by Potemkin to the Empress Catharine.

To conclude: these memoirs contain a great variety of amusing anecdotes, which are given perfectly in the French manner. It is impossible to peruse them without pitying the subjects of the Russian Empire, and wishing them a better system; which the operations of time, and the gradual diffusion of knowlege, may ultimately confer.

ART. X. *Quatuor Evangelia Græce. Textum receptum, signis distinctum ad instar Origenianæ* ΤΩΝ Ο'. *recensionis, edidit* J. White, *S.T.P. Ling. Arab. Prof.—Syriacæ Philoxenianæ Novi Testamenti Versionis Interpres.* 8vo. pp. 335. Printed at Oxford.

ALL Christians, who appeal to the Scriptures as the only genuine basis of faith, must allow it to be a matter of infinite importance to ascertain the purity of the sacred text; and they must esteem those scholars who, with a most persevering industry, have endeavoured to exhibit it free from mistakes and interpolations. It appertains only to the timidity of ignorance, to suspect mischief from such undertakings:—as well may the pure grain be injured by having the chaff winnowed from it, or the golden ore by being washed from the dust and filth by which it is obscured. Assured of the stability of Christian truth, we cannot be alarmed at the progress of manly inquiry:

emendations, justified by the authority of MSS. and versions, are confined; and how little the numerous various readings, which have been collected, affect the essential doctrines of Scripture.

The Arabic Professor gives the following account of the edition of the Gospels before us, in which he has copied the plan of Origen's *Hexaplar :*

> ' *Quæ Signis adjectis indicantur, ad nuperam* GRIESBACHII *Editionem spectant, viz. Quicquid interjacet hæc Signa* ÷ ↙, *vel certissime, vel saltem probabiliter, illius judicio, resecandum est de textu recepto, cum absit a plerisque Codd. MSS. Variantes Lectiones Codd. MSS. quæ, ejusdem judicio, textui recepto præferendæ, vel saltem æquiparandæ sunt, in margine apponuntur. Additamenta nonnulla (rara illa quidem) interposui, his Signis* ⁜ ↙ *interjecta, quæ textui recepto e Codd. MSS. addenda esse vult idem Vir Cl. cum ipsi male in vulg. Editionibus omissa videantur.*'

The reader will observe that Dr. White does not avow his own opinion, but contents himself with citing the decision of Griesbach. Respectable, however, as such an authority is in the court of sacred criticism, we could have wished that the learned Doctor had sanctioned it by his own, and not confined himself to merely following the Jena Professor. He has taken no notice of the long passage in the *Codex Cantabrigiensis*, between the 28th and 29th verses of the xxth chapter of Matthew's Gospel.

Though there is no ostentatious display in this publication, it must have cost the editor much pains; and, convinced of its utility, we sincerely wish him encouragement in editing the whole of the New Testament in the same manner. In addition to the other merits of the work before us, it is recommended by the remarkable neatness of the type, and by the correctness with which it appears to be printed.

Prefixed to the volume is an elegant dedication to Dr. Shute Barrington, Bishop of Durham.

ART. XI. *Picture of Palermo.* By Dr. Hager. Translated from the German, by Mrs. Mary Robinson. 12mo. pp. 159. 4s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1800.

THE title of this little book must excite peculiar interest in classical readers, who will be naturally curious concerning Sicily, an island so renowned in story during the most polished periods of the Globe; and the circumstance of the author being a man of learning, who resided two years in Palermo at the request of his Sicilian Majesty, in order to detect a literary forgery*, must create the hope that this account would contain information more valuable and satisfactory than could be expected from the slight and cursory remarks of those who travel merely for amusement. We have already had descriptions of Sicily in general, and of particular parts of that beautiful country, from various writers. Captain Brydone mentions Palermo as the place at which he found the relaxing and oppressive effects of the *Sirocco*, or south-east wind, infinitely more violent than at Naples: yet his account of the city of Palermo is so much more favourable than this before us, that it seems to have been his most agreeable residence while he remained in the island. Sir William Hamilton's Sicilian Tour was confined to Mount Ætna. Baron Riedesel's account of Palermo, and that of Mr. Swinburne, being constituent parts only of a general description of Sicily, left much for a future writer to explore and describe in the antient capital of that state.—The anatomical parts and outline of Dr. Hager's *Picture* are probably very correct: but it wants colouring and spirit.

By having remained in Palermo longer than former descriptive travellers, the author has been enabled to give a more ample and satisfactory account of the seasons in this island, plated the *ananas* flourish better in the open air, than its companion in the green-house. We scarcely could believe that the sun was in Capricorn; and thought, with Bailly and Rudbek, that we had found the *Atlantis* in an hyperborean season, or had seen before us the Island of Tinian, which, according to the description of Anson, is replete with such a variety of beauties.

'After we had satisfied our palates, we filled our pockets with oranges; and such was the profusion, that no one called us to account for it. Now also, early in February, the *pistacio's*, *manna*, and all other trees, begin to shoot; while the *tulip*, the *clove*, and the *ranunculus* make their appearance. Ripened *almonds* are at this period offered for sale; and in the early part of March we seem to have a perfect May.'

This is such a winter as would be deemed a very delightful summer in most parts of the world. The summer, however, in Sicily, is not so benign; and the pleasures of December are balanced by the intemperance of June.

'The heat of summer at Palermo is so excessive, that after having kept it out of the rooms during the day, it is impossible to guard against it in the evening, when the sun is set: the interior heat then streams from the glowing walls so powerfully, to restore the equilibrium with the cool air, that the inhabitants are compelled to quit their houses, and hasten to the open streets, or the sea-side; where, from the end of June until the autumn, every evening the best society is to be found; where delightful music is provided at the expence of the senate; and cooling beverages, with various refreshments, are exposed for sale, in addition to the luxury of enjoying the sea-breezes.'

This learned author retains the antient prejudice concerning the bite and cure of the *Tarantula*; (p. 19.) though it has been long exploded by the experiments of men of science in Italy.

The Arabian remains in Palermo, since the Saracens were in possession of Sicily, are curious:

'The King's chapel at Palermo, which is in this palace, is still adorned with Arabic inscriptions, which cover the walls. The well-preserved azure, the variegated colours, and the gold which embellishes the interior, form a beautiful monument of Arabian art. The librarian of the Senate Angelini, before I quitted Palermo, had prepared a description of it for the press. At the entrance there is an inscription, very interesting to a Sicilian, cut in stone, in three languages; the Latin, Greek, and Arabic. From this it is clear, that in the time of Roger these languages were used, as in the days of Apuleius the Punic, Greek, and Latin tongues were spoken in Sicily. The Latin inscription says, that in the year 1142, at the command of Roger, a time-piece was made, which confirms the opinion that time-pieces (about the history of which so little is known at present) owe their invention to the Arabians. They were the people which, at that period, were not only acquainted with the arts and sciences, but also made considerable progress in astronomy and mathematics. Before their time moveable time-pieces were not known. The first machine of this kind was that, which Charles the Great received as a present from an Arabian Prince, which, by its curious mechanism, not only marked the hours, but at every hour vibrated a musical sound, while figures on horseback came out of the windows, and when they re-entered, again closed them.

'After the time of Roger, the Sultan of Egypt sent the Emperor Frederick II. another time-piece, which not only shewed, by means of artificial wheels and weights, the hours of day and night, but also represented the motion of the sun, moon, and the other planets.'

Here we have an *Orrery* of a very early construction!—At p. 29. we have a still more extraordinary piece of intelligence concerning an *Opera* at the Court of Palermo, in the time of the Emperor Frederic IId. who died in 1250. 'Instead of the noble Hungarian life-guard, the Imperial life-guard at that time consisted of Arabians; and, just as in the present times, a Vestris or a Gardel is engaged from Paris, so the Emperor ordered an Arabian to be provided for the opera at the Court of Palermo.'

The author's account of the Sicilian and Neapolitan Nuns (Chapter on Customs, p. 33.) seems to have come from a Calvinist or Lutheran, who had obtained it by *hear-say*. He states quities we may imagine to be more correctly recorded and explained by our author than by common travellers, in consequence of his knowlege of the oriental languages.

It is extraordinary that, in describing theatres, the word *Opera* is never mentioned; though all who have spoken of the musical dramas of Palermo celebrate the great singers who have performed in them. Mr. Brydone tells us that Pacchierotti began his career in that city, with Gabriele; and Dr. Burney says that the powers of Farinelli and Gizziello were there displayed.

We here find a chapter on the *amusements* of the people at Palermo: but they are so similar to those in the rest of Italy, which have been so often described in books of travels through that country, that Dr. H. might have spared himself the trouble of detailing them. The horse-races through the *corso*, or principal street, without riders, are the same at Palermo as in all the great Italian cities. The bull-feasts are disgustingly delineated, so as to be as offensive to humanity as the amusements at Vienna; where animals are not only baited and torn by dogs, but helpless domestic creatures devoured alive by beasts of prey.

Sicily is not in general in a high state of civilization: inns, roads, carriages, and accommodation, are all bad. Travellers are forced to depend on the hospitality of convents for food and lodging; as, in the chief parts of Asia, they are necessitated to apply to the benevolence of the natives.

The author has been so good as to give us a poem of some length in the Sicilian dialect of the xiith century. Many of the words of this antient composition are still pure Italian; and the difficulty in construing the rest arises from the mixture of Arabic, as in Spanish from that of Moresque words, in the diction.—Original materials for this little work seem to have fallen short: as Dr. Hager is obliged to have recourse to Brydone for a description of *la Festa di santa Rosalia*; to Constantinople for another Festival; and to Florence, and even Egypt, for embalming and mummies.

One of the best chapters contains the description of the country round Palermo; and part at least of the section on the political state of Sicily would be worth extracting, if we could allow room for it.—In the chapter on *Cheats*, Dr. H., in order to introduce the relation of his discovery of the *Abaté Vella's* forgery, has given Cicero's narrative of a fraud practised in Sicily by *Pythius*, a banker, on *Caius Canius*, a Roman Knight. 'Palermo, in modern times, has produced many remarkable impostors. The well-known Joseph Balsamo, afterwards called Count *Cagliostro*, was a native of Palermo;'—and of this man's life we have here a sketch, previously to the account of the detection of the *Abaté Vella*; whose forgery throws us into despair concerning the recovery of the lost books of Livy, Tacitus, Diodorus, and other antient authors, through the medium of Arabic translations. We have already noticed Dr. Hager's account of this transaction; see a preceding note, p. 68.

This little publication is interesting: but we must confess that we were somewhat disappointed, in not finding in it more information which we had not before received from other books. It is presented to the English reader in a pleasing translation, elegantly printed.

ART. XII. *A complete System of Astronomy.* By the Rev. S. Vince, A.M. F.R.S. Plumian Professor of Astronomy and Experimental Philosophy in the University of Cambridge. 4to. Vol. II. pp. 600. 1l. 4s. Boards. Printed at Cambridge; and sold in London by Wingrave, &c. 1799.

SINCE our notice of the first volume of this work *, several philosophical foreign publications have arrived, and have delayed our attention to this completion of Prof. Vince's design. By no means negligent of the claims of our countrymen, our conduct has been regulated by the rules of civility:

limit, it must be true in the limit.'—This is not satisfactory; in the first place, it is no very evident and strict consequence, that what is nearly accurate before we arrive at the limit should be exactly so at the limit: in the second place, a right line does not seem a proper, or if we may use the expression, a natural limit to an ellipse: for, diminish the *latus rectum* what we please, the curve at the extremity of the *axis major* never nearly coincides with part of the axis. The conclusion drawn by Newton and Mr. V. we know to be true, but it does not seem to follow strictly from the premises *.

In finding the motions of the apsides, Mr. Vince has not entirely followed Newton in his 9th section: for he proves that the force in the orbit in fixed space is equal to $\frac{F^2}{A^2}+\frac{RG^2-RF^2}{A^3}$, by aid of the centrifugal force. We believe that a method somewhat similar to that of Prof. Vince is given in the notes to a book containing parts of the *Principia*, published by Dr. Jebb.

To prove one of Newton's important discoveries, viz. that, when the force varies inversely as the square of the distance, spheres attract in the same manner as if all their matter were collected in their centres, Mr. Vince abandons the method which Newton uses in the 12th section, and substitutes the 90th proposition of the 13th, and a fluxionary computation.

Respecting the motion of a body disturbed by extraneous forces, the author has followed Newton in his 11th section, with the exception of some variations; and he has explained, as that great author has done, the precession of the equinoxes, and the tides.

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* We are averse from an appeal to authority in matters of abstract science; and we do not quote the following opinion of D'Alembert because it is D'Alembert's, but because it is reasonable and just: "*J'avouerai à cette occasion que je n'ai jamais été satisfait de la manière dont M. Newton envisage, dans le Section 7. liv. 1. Prin. le mouvement rectiligne d'un corps qui tend vers un centre; surtout dans l'hypothèse d'une force en raison inverse du quarré des distances. Il réprésente ce mouvement par celui du même corps dans une section conique, dont un des axes seroit*$=0$, *ce qui ne me paroit nullement exact. Car si ce dernier mouvement pouvoit réprésenter le mouvement rectiligne, supposons la force proportionelle à* $\frac{1}{x^2}$; *le foyer et le sommet de la section conique, reduite (hyp.) à une ligne droite, se confondroient avec le centre de tendance; et comme le corps, qui décrit une section conique, après avoir descendu vers le foyer, s'en éloigne ensuite en rémontant; de même dans l'hypothèse de M. Newton, le corps arrivé au centre devroit rémonter au lieu de passer outre, comme il y passe evidemment; on ne peut donc regarder avec M. Newton le mouvement du corps dont il s'agit, comme s'il se faisoit dans une section conique réduite à une ligne droite par l'anéantissement d'un de ses axes.*"

Chapter 32. *On the Theory of the Moon.*—Newton, after the discovery of the law of universal gravitation, applied his theory to the several phænomena of the universe, to the precession of the equinoxes, to the tides, and to the inequalities in the moon's motion. His labours on these subjects, although with certain considerations meriting the highest admiration, are not to be accounted complete and satisfactory. The imperfect state of analysis did not enable him to solve what is known by the problem of the three bodies; which was determined by Euler in his *Theoria motus Lunæ, exhibens omnes ejus Inequalitates*, 1753; and afterward more fully in his *Theoria motuum Lunæ*, 1772; by Clairaut in his *Mémoire sur la Theorie de la Lune*, Petersburg, 1752; and by D'Alembert in his *Récherches sur différent points importans du systéme du monde*, 1754, and in his *Opuscules*.

From the solution of the problem of the three bodies, the great confirmation of Newton's system was expected: but Euler, D'Alembert, and Clairaut, who solved it nearly about the same time, agreed in making the motion of the lunar perigee one half less than observations gave it. Clairaut immediately proposed, instead

Of the theories of the moon given by foreign mathematicians, Mr. Vince has followed that of Frisi *; influenced by the same motives which induced that author to adopt a synthetical mode of demonstration. 'Although (says the Professor) the conclusions thus deduced (viz. by the indirect method of Frisi) are not always so accurate as those derived from a direct solution of the problem, yet they give the true arguments, and their coefficients to a very considerable degree of accuracy. This method of treating the subject has this advantage, that it points out more clearly the particular causes of the several equations so deduced, which are not obvious in the equations derived from the general solution.'

The moon's theory is treated under the following heads:

'On the Radius Vector of the Moon's Orbit, and the Equation of its Centre.

'On the Effect of increasing or diminishing, by a very small quantity, the Force or Velocity of a Body moving in an Ellipse about the Focus.

'On the Alteration of the Figure of the Moon's Orbit, supposed to have no Excentricity; and the Variation of the Moon.

'To find the Equation of the mean Motion of the Moon arising from the different Distances of the Earth from the Sun.

'To find the Equation arising from the Inclination of the Orbit to the Ecliptic.

'To find the Alteration of the Periodic Time of the Moon, by the disturbing Forces.

'On the Motion of the Moon's Apogee, and the Variation of the Excentricity of its Orbit.

'On the Equation which depends upon the Place of the Apogee of the Moon in respect to the Sun.

'To correct the Equation of the Centre of the Moon.

'To correct the Equation of the Variation of the Moon.

'To correct the Equation of the Erection of the Moon.

'On the Equations of the horizontal Parallax of the Moon.

'On the Motion of the Nodes of the Moon's Orbit.

'To find the Equations of the mean Motion of the Nodes.

'On the Variation of the Inclination of the Moon's Orbit.

'To find the Equations of the Variation of the Inclination of the Lunar Orbit.

'To reduce the place of the Moon in its Orbit, to the Ecliptic.

'On the true Place and Motion of the Moon's Apogee.'

Chap. 33. *On the Figure of the Earth.*—To ascertain the figure of the earth, many laborious calculations have been undertaken, and many hazardous voyages performed: much truth has indeed been established, but much still requires to be known. The figure of the earth was supposed by some of the antient mathematicians to be spherical; Newton, however, remarking that a spherical body with a rotatory motion must swell in its parts at and near the equator, concluded that the figure of the earth was an ellipsoid: he therefore assumed it such, without demonstration; and with this assumption, and the hypothesis of the earth's homogeneity, he deduced the ratio of its diameters.

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* "*Præstabit Newtoni exemplo approximationes hujusmodi quæ fert ipsa problematis natura, initio assumere; atque ita triplicis Integrationis Seriem, difficultatemque declinare.*"—Frisi *de Gravitate universali corporum.*

By an admirable method, Maclaurin shewed that Newton was right when he assumed a spheroidal form for an homogeneous fluid mass, having a rotarory motion; and from his method it follows that, if the ellipsoid be not much flattened, the *ellipticity* equals five fourths of the ratio of the centrifugal force to the gravity at the equator.

The idea of the homogeneity of the earth, however, demanded inquiry. It appeared natural that the density should increase from the surface to the centre; and it is necessary for the stability of the equilibrium of the seas, that their density should be less than the mean density of the earth: otherwise, the waters, raised by winds and by the action of the moon, might inundate the continents. Observation likewise shews that the earth is not homogeneous; for, supposing it to be homogeneous, the increase of gravity at the pole ought to be .00435 x *G* (*G* gravity at equator): but, by observations on the pendulum, the increase is .00567 x *G*;—consequently the earth is *not* homogeneous.

The homogeneity of the earth being excluded by observation, Clairaut, in a treatise on the figure of our planet, demonstrated that the equilibrium was still possible, on the hypothesis that the surface of the earth and the interior strata of variable density were elliptical; and this work of Clairaut has been the subject of Professor Vince's principal attention. The investigation, as we have already mentioned, is of the greatest difficulty: but it has been ascertained, with sufficient exactness, that the figure of the earth is not elliptical, and that its northern and southern parts are not similar. The accurate and extensive mensurations now carried on in England will probably throw much light on this subject.

Chapter 34. *On the Precession of the Equinoxes, and the Nutation of the Earth's Axes.*—The cause of the precession of the equinoxes was assigned by Newton (sect. 11. book 1.): but, in the investigation of its effect, (prop. 39. book 3.) he fell into an error. Since his time, the problem of the precession has been solved by several mathematicians; by D'Alembert, by Frisi, by Simson, (who obtained a right conclusion by a compensation of errors,) and by Landen (vol. ii. p. 51. Math. Memoirs), who distinctly pointed out the source of Newton's error. Mr. Vince proceeds immediately to the solution of the problem of the precession and nutation produced by the action of the sun; and he next shews what are the quantities of the precession, &c. effected by the action of the moon.

Chap. 35. *On the Densities, Quantities of Matter, Light, and Heat, of the Planets.*—Before the discovery of the principle of universal gravitation, nothing seemed more difficult than to determine the masses of the planets, and the spaces through which bodies at their surface fall in a given time. The theorems of Huygens and Newton on the centrifugal force, and the law of gravity established by the latter, enable us with no great trouble to ascertain the masses of those planets which have satellites revolving round them: for the gravity of the earth to the sun is to the gravity of a satellite to its planet as the mean distance (D) of the earth from the sun, divided by the square of a sidereal year (P), is to the mean radius (d) of the satellite's orbit divided by the square of its sidereal revolution (p). Again the gravity of the earth at distance (D) is to gravity at distance $d :: d^2 : D^2$; and, consequently, at equal distances, the gravity of the earth to the sun, and that of the satellite to its planet, are as $\frac{D^3}{P^2}$ to $\frac{d^3}{p^2}$. Hence may be determined the masses and densities of the *Georgium Sidus*, of Saturn, of Jupiter, and of the Earth. The mass of the Earth, however, may be calculated by a more exact method. The masses of those planets, (viz. Venus, Mars, Mercury,) which have not satellites, are obtained from the secular alterations which their actions produce in the elements of the solar system. Of Venus and Mars, M. La Place has calculated the masses from the secular diminution of the obliquity of the ecliptic, and from the acceleration of the moon's mean motion.

The mass of the moon may be obtained by two methods:

1st, Since the nutation of the earth's axis is entirely due to the action of the moon, and the mean precession of the equinoxes is due to the joint action of the sun and moon; it is clear that the ratio of the moon's action to that of the sun may be obtained from observing the quantities of these two phænomena; and hence the ratio of the masses for the moon's effect on the motion of the earth's axis is proportional to her mass, divided by the cube of her distance from the earth.

2dly, Since the tides, when the sun and moon are in quadratures, arise from the difference of the action of those two bodies; and, when the sun and moon are in syzygies, from their joint action; by observing the height of the tides, the ratio of the sun's action to that of the moon may be deduced *.

M. La Place thinks that the latter method of ascertaining the ratio of the masses of the sun and moon is more accurate than the former: Professor Vince has (Art. 1062. and 1038.) given a contrary opinion: but perhaps our learned author has not sufficiently attended to the great improvements which the theory of the tides has received from the French mathematician. See Memoirs of the Paris Academy, 1775, 1776, 1790.

Chapter 36. *On the Motion of the Planes of the Orbits of the Planets, from their mutual Attractions.*—The method of treating the subject of this chapter is similar to that of Frisi.

Chapter 37. *On the Effects produced on the Motions of the Planets in the Planes of their Orbits, from their mutual Attractions.*—Here the author quits his former method of demonstration, and gives the analytical solution of the problem on which the substance of this chapter depends.

Suppose P and Q to be two forces acting on a point m, and parallel to two rectangular co-ordinates x and y; then

$$\frac{x^{\cdot\cdot}}{t^{\cdot 2}} = P$$

are given several methods of developing the function

$$\frac{1}{\left(1-\frac{2rr'}{r^2+r'^2}\cos. z\right)^m}.$$

Chapter 38. *On the Tides.*—After a brief account of the several opinions concerning the tides entertained by philosophers previously to Newton, Mr. Vince proceeds to determine the figure of the earth supposed to be fluid, and the height of the tides, on the hypothesis of an equilibrium in all its parts; and he then gives the theory of tides, nearly as laid down by Daniel Bernouilli in his celebrated treatise *.

Newton, who first undertook the *problem of the tides*, supposed that at each instant the sea assumed the figure with which it would be in equilibrium under the action of the sun and moon. Maclaurin, Euler, and D. Bernouilli, adopted the same hypothesis: but, although in many respects the results of their theories are conformable to observation, it is clear that the hypothesis is inaccurate, since the rapid motion of the earth's rotation prevents the waters covering it from assuming the figure which corresponds to the equilibrium of the forces acting on them. It is not only evident *à priori* that this hypothesis is incorrect, but the results obtained from it disagree with observations, or more properly contradict them in some particular cases. Bernouilli, noticing this disagreement, has endeavoured to explain it, and assigned a reason which has evidently been shewn to be fallacious.

The three treatises on the tides, (in 1740,) by Euler, D. Bernouilli, and Maclaurin; and the three treatises on the moon, (in 1745,) by Clairaut, Euler, and D'Alembert; form memorable epochs in the history of physical Astronomy: but mathematicians must be contented with the reputation of having advanced science: they must not hope that their writings will be for ever read: for, though they may remain a monument of their genius, their sure and necessary influence is to prepare the way for other productions which are destined to efface them. The problem of the tides was not treated in the most general manner, because analysis was then inadequate to the solution of it †. The complete solution has been given by one of the greatest mathematicians of the present day: but, though the glory of his works can scarcely suffer diminution, the success of them is partly owing to the discoveries of D'Alembert, in the doctrine of the motion of fluids and of partial differences.

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* See Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences, and the third volume of the edition of the *Principia* by Le Seur and Jacquier.

† Although sagacity was by no means the characteristic quality of Euler's mind, yet he noticed the defect in the hypothesis on which the theory of the tides was founded.

Here we arrive at the conclusion of Professor Vince's labours in physical Astronomy. The succeeding chapters treat *on the Principles of Projection, and the Construction of Geographical Maps; on the Use of Interpolations in Astronomy: and on the History of Astronomy*. This history is not very full: the latter part of it consists of a succinct biographical account of Astronomers, including a catalogue of their works. Of our great countryman, the immortal Newton, we were sorry to perceive so brief a notice. It is difficult, indeed, for words to convey an adequate idea of his merit: but it is by words that he is to be commended; and every author may use a similar excuse with Mr. V. for passing him over in silence;—or is Newton the more celebrated because the less praised, according to the principle of that fine observation of Tacitus, "That Brutus and Cassius were the more eminently conspicuous, because their statues were *not* seen among the rest?*"

Towards the close of his history, Mr. Vince with perfect propriety bestows his tribute of applause on the great living Astronomers Lalande, Herschel, and Maskelyne.

After this chapter, we are presented with an argument for the existence of a deity, a designer, a first cause, founded on the simplicity and regularity of the laws which govern the universe. This argument is drawn up clearly, neatly, and with elegance.

The remaining part of the volume, comprising 300 pages, consists of tables for facilitating Astronomical Calculations.

Such are the contents of this performance; which must be universally admitted to be eminently useful, and which, in our judgment, elevates to no mean height the reputation of its author.—Respecting Plane Astronomy, several English works are extant: but we believe that the present volume is the only treatise (of any repute) on Physical Astronomy, that has been written in our language. The Continent, also, could boast of but few complete treatises, previously to the stupendous work of La Place; that of Frisi was indeed the only one which could be styled complete; and M. Cousin's publication is little more than a collection of methods.—Of memoirs and tracts relative to physical Astronomy, we have very few that were written by English mathematicians; Stewart and Emerson published some problems with faulty demonstrations: Landen, as far as he went, was exact: Thomas Simpson was the author of several valuable essays, but he was convicted by D'Alembert of an error in his problem on the precession of the equinoxes. The memoirs and works on physical Astronomy, by foreign mathematicians, it is not so easy to enumerate; for, if Newton bequeathed to his countrymen the large inheritance of his fame, foreigners have appropriated his precious discoveries:—we have built a tomb for his body, and they have raised monuments to his genius:—to us his reputation is as a gay ornament, to be worn for shew and ostentation; with them it is a spur that urges them in quest of fame "to live laborious days":—we embrace his doctrine with that fervent zeal with which men hold a point of faith and a tenet of religion, while they, convinced of its truth, calmly and soberly assent to it:—we believe him to be infallible, they know him to be right:—the philosophy, which seems to us inspirited by fire caught from heaven, is viewed by them as the sublimest effort of human reason:—we adore Newton almost as a god, they esteem him as the greatest of men.

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* *Sed præfulgebant Cassius atque Brutus, eo ipso quod effigies eorum non visebantur.*

Although it must be readily conceded that the present work is useful and valuable, yet we cannot speak of it as containing full and exact information on every point. Indeed, the author, with great modesty, announces that certain circumstances have abridged and limited it; and that the bounds destined to it, together with the great intricacy of the subject, prevented him from making his discussions so full as their dignity and difficulty demanded. It is, then, no just complaint that this treatise does not essentially contain every thing which has been written on physical Astronomy; and the author deserves his full measure of commendation, if, within a given compass, he has inserted as much matter as he could, with attention to perspicuity and arrangement. Perhaps he has done this: but we cannot speak decisively. The doubt in our minds relates to the method adopted by the Professor: he has followed what is commonly denominated the synthetical: a mode which has its advantages, as Mr. Vince has shewn: but then it is neither so direct nor so exact as the analytical. Perhaps we might call it insufficient * for the author in the thirty seventh chapter; and in the chapter on the tides he has abandoned it;—and thus it happens that the work is not symmetrical, not being fashioned and formed throughout after the same plan and manner of demonstration. Of the chapter on the tides we have already spoken: but we wish to add one or two more remarks. The theory of D. Bernouilli satisfactorily accounts for many of the principal phænomena of the tides, but it cannot explain all, because part of his hypothesis is faulty: still we should be justified in adhering to his system, if a better had not been

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* When we say *insufficient*, it is not to be understood that the method is in its nature and essentially inadequate to the solution of problems however complicated; only that its necessary tediousness and intricacy render it extremely *incommodious*.

framed: but a better has been framed, one which is more exact in its principles, and which has been more fully confirmed by observation. His theory, then, is no longer an explication of natural phænomena; and it falls into the rank of hypotheses of pure curiosity, calculated to amuse the speculative mind, but not adapted to satisfy the philosophic inquirer, who is desirous of seeing nature interpreted.

One of the duties of critical justice consists in the detection and correction of errors: its more pleasing task is to render commendation where it is due: but, when the extent of reading, the toil of selection and arrangement, and the nicety of examination, which are requisite for the composition of a work like the present, are fairly considered and estimated, it would seem almost disgracing the author to encumber him with the common phrases and the vague generalities of praise. We hope that he will feel and experience what it is not in our power to express, the esteem and gratitude of his enlightened countrymen.

ART. XIII. *Sketches of the State of Manners and Opinions in the French Republic*, towards the Close of the Eighteenth Century. In a Series of Letters. By Helen Maria Williams. 8vo. 2 Vols. pp. 330. each. 12s. Boards. Robinsons. 1801.

FEW English women, or even English men, have enjoyed a more ample opportunity of observing the varying fortunes and features,—the action and re-action,—in short, the general character, spirit, and tendency of the revolutions in France, than the lady whose letters are now before us; and though she betrays an evident partiality for the system which is introduced, and at present triumphant, she manifests knowlege and penetration in her remarks on the scenes and characters passing before her. Circumstances have occurred in that revolutionized country, and throughout the continent of Europe, which enforce the policy of weighing the probability of Miss Williams's general statements. In speaking of some facts, she may have fallen into mistakes; in exhibiting others, she may have used a too strong and too poetical colouring; and her readers must be concerned to see an English woman become so devoted an admirer of a system which seems to be so embarrassing and alarming to her own country:—yet, as there is some reason for suspecting that errors and deceptions of no small magnitude have been passed on us, respecting the temper, views, and prveailing opinions of the French nation, her account of the present state of the enemy merits a calm and patient investigation. A knowlege of the actual condition of France, perhaps, can only be obtained from a dispassionate examination of different narratives, and from considering the degree of credit impressed on each by the circumstances which have occurred. In some of Miss Williams's sketches, we have to object to an affectation of sentiment and sensibility, which, in letters submitted to the public eye, might have been spared. The fact seems to be, that she endeavoured to produce an entertaining book; and from a heterogeneous whole, good sense and discrimination must be employed to select the most valuable parts.

The writer's own account of the present work is, 'that the letters were written at different periods during the course of the last two years. The subjects in general relate to the events of the day, and the discussions, opinions, and sentiments to which they gave rise. These letters may therefore be considered as sketches of manners, characters, and incidents in the French republic towards the close of the eighteenth century, and in some sort as forming notes to the most stupendous page in the volume of human history.' Miss W. neither apologizes for employing her pen on political subjects, nor deigns to make a reply to those who have loaded her with the imputation of Jacobinism: but she expresses her abhorrence of the system of terror, laments the calamities which have accompanied the French revolution, (which she nevertheless terms 'a sublime effort in favour of humanity,') and concludes with hoping, 'that it will ultimately terminate in the establishment of a perfect government in the country where it originated, and the extension of liberty even to states still more despotic.'

It is not possible for us to minutely notice the miscellaneous contents of these letters; which not only detail the history of the French revolution, but that of Switzerland, and the revolution and counter-revolution at Naples, previously and subsequently to the battle of the Nile. In the latter narration, Miss W. seems to have admitted some extravagant reports, that we apprehend do not belong to true history: but we are wholly incompetent to the investigation of these points of fact; and we shall content ourselves with those parts which immediately relate to the title of the work.

In the letters intitled *Observations on the State of the French Republic*, &c. the writer remarks:

> 'The abolition of the law of primogeniture, by equalizing hereditary fortunes, though the most slow and silent in its operations, has become the most sure and powerful support of the Revolution.
>
> 'Every day some superannuated prejudice drops off the scene, in the form of some Count of *****, and increases the mass of happiness in the Republic, since the streams of fortune which hitherto flowed in sullen gravity through a desert country, no longer confined

to their antient channels, since the feudal dykes are levelled, now glide in numerous currents across the plain, augmenting the fertility of the soil, and the stock of national and individual enjoyments. The equal division of hereditary property, while it has added to the mass of general happiness, has little increased the number of the discontented. The young Count will scarcely regret a loss which he never felt but in perspective, and the younger children are conscious that they owe the participation of the patrimonial fortune to the Revolution, to which they become necessarily attached, since the return of the antient order of things would plunge them back into dependence, or poverty.

'Thus has the division of more than half a million of revenue brought up eight families, instead of one; but how many hundred millions in the course of a year, form similar distributions of fortune and happiness! A few years since the younger branches of these illustrious houses would have been billeted on the public fortune as priests, or placemen, and the females would have been immured in sepulchral cloisters.'——'It appears in the enumeration made thirty years since, that the number of both sexes in France, who had embraced the monastic life, amounted to more than one hundred thousand, and the inferior clergy were almost equally numerous. Is agriculture, arts, commerce, or literature, benefited by such supporters of religion, morality, and social order?'

Miss W. thus describes the state of religion :

We may make allowance for Oriental phraseology, when the writer tells us "of armies destroyed numerous as the stars of heaven, and thick as the sands on the sea-shore:" but a reader of Christian antiquities will recognize names and places of very old acquaintance, among the scenes where the valor of the French has transported their military operations. At one time the hostile armies were driven from Nazareth, the birth-place of the great teacher of mankind; Mount Tabor, the scene of his transfiguration, was the ground of another victory. Cana of Galilee, where he performed his first miracle in favour of social hospitality, and which the surly Capucin remarked was not the most meritorious of his actions, was the residence of a French camp; and after routing the Turkish army at Bethulia, where Judith beheaded the inebriated chief of the Assyrians, the Republicans drove the affrighted fugitives across the plain of Jericho, into the river Jordan.

'These splendid triumphs have come in powerful aid of the decision of the government respecting the jacobin associations, and strengthened the party in the councils who contended against the motion of declaring the country in danger; no danger being half so formidable as jacobin plans of deliverance. The worst perils were dissipated by the courage of the Republican party in the changes of the 30th of Prairial, and the political sharks of the interior, who swarmed around the vessel of the state, in hopes that it would be ingulphed in the revolutionary tempest, are either taken, or have been dispersed at the approach of a calm.'

A considerable part of Vol. I. is occupied by a whimsical story, relating the adventures of a bellows-mender.

The Second Volume contains observations on the revolution of the 19th of Brumaire, when the Directory was annihilated by Bonaparte;—on the constitution;—on the state of women in the French republic;—on the state of religion;—on Atheism;—on Bonaparte's Italian expedition and return;—on the state of literature;—on the war, and on the prospect of peace.

Bonaparte is represented, in the part which he took in overturning the Directorial system, as acting under the conflict of contending sentiments:

'Can we be surprized (says Miss W.) that he felt discomposure at being compelled to the commission of an act abhorrent from its forms to every idea of freedom, but strongly necessitated by every motive for its preservation? Is it to be wondered at, that he felt with the Roman patriot, that in the interval between the motive and the execution of a dreadful thing,

———"The state of man,
Like to a little kingdom, suffers then
The nature of an insurrection,"———

and that while he was impelled to do a strange and daring deed, by the irresistible impulse of acting for the salvation of his country, his first, and most important duty, he regretted as sincerely, and as poignantly as the most enthusiastic friend of liberty, the means?

' He had withdrawn from this scene of menace and confusion, and was haranguing the troops, recounting to them the dangers which he had incurred, and the tyranny which the minority were exercising over the council, when word was brought him that the life of the President, his brother, was in imminent danger. When Buonaparte left the council, it was on the President that the rage of the violent party turned; he had attempted to speak, and had preferred a few words in justification of the General, alleging, that he ought to have been heard; that his actions had hitherto demonstrated that his attachment to liberty and the Republic was not to be suspected: that it was unjust to suppose he harboured designs sinister to the public weal, and that he had, no doubt, come to give such information as might lead to measures which would secure the preservation and welfare of the state. This harangue, which was heard only by a few members, was frequently interrupted by the clamorous exertions of the violent party, some of whom had pressed around the tribune, and were putting themselves in the attitude of attack, as they had done against the General. The President, alarmed probably at their menaces, and indignant at their reproaches, descended from the chair, threw off his toque and his robe, and with tears starting from his eyes, declared himself divested of his presidency. It was at the moment, when the clamour of those raging senators was at its climax, when pistols were presented to make him resume his robe and his seat, that the military entering once more the hall, surround-the country; but the revolution of St. Cloud has spread its beneficent effects beyond the confines of the Republic; and you are, of course, grateful for this second escape, which, unlike the last, has cost nothing. Long and melancholy experience has here taught us, and it will be a sufficient warning, without doubt, to surrounding nations, that whatever be their form of government, none can be more miserable than that which is under jacobinical sway.'

She farther adds:

'I am far from adopting the opinion of those who would persuade the French that they have escaped the rocks to fall into the whirlpool; and that they have changed their temporary state of internal discord and misery, for a perpetual confinement in the bonds of silken servitude.—France does not present the present constitution as the most perfect of all constitutions, but as the best in the actual circumstances.'

Important as the subject of religion is, we must content ourselves with transcribing the following short passages relative to it, in addition to the remarks already quoted:

'Of ecclesiastical privileges the empire is for ever overthrown; nor will its fall be regretted, if religious truth rise fairer from the ruins.'—'If religion be the first corrective of the disorders of the heart, it is the interest of every government to rank its protection among the most important of its duties.'—'Although Christianity institutes no exclusive form of government, they have discerned that it promotes that spirit of equality, which suffers us to call no man master on earth; not that levelling system, which, under pretence of destroying distinctions, degrades genius and debases virtue; but that equality which, while it teaches man his rights, instructs him better in his duties, and becomes the firmest guarantee of the new commandment left by the Saviour of the world, and which has hitherto unhappily retained its novelty,—that we should love one another.'

We must not exclude the succeeding observations on the charge of Atheism, so often brought against the French of the present period:

'Atheism, properly distinguished, has perhaps as few advocates in France as in any other country in Europe; for the rejection of those vulgar conceptions, which have led man to form the Divinity after his own image, ought not to be called by this name; and the number I believe to be very limited indeed, who do not acknowlege the principle of Supreme Intelligence in the mechanism of the universe, though they may not give it form or substance, or admit from deduction its moral attributes.

'With respect to revealed religion the case is different. Few men, who call themselves philosophers, are believers; not because they are philosophers, but because they have never studied the question, or have thought it unworthy of their study. In the established dogmas of the Roman Catholic faith they have beheld things which they deem absurd or unintelligible, and reject all further examination. The genuine doctrines of Christianity, and those of the church, are so inseparably connected in their minds, that they do not perceive the distinction, and wonder that any should be made.

'In the higher classes of society, sentiments of honour, and a regard to the decencies of life, may fill the void of more fixed and determined principles; but the short interregnum of jacobin impiety produced many ill effects on the people, who were ignorant of any purer system of faith. The persecution of the Catholic Religion under the late Directory did not fail, from the same causes, to augment the evil. Since the establishment of a more wise and tolerating government, the people have returned to the observance of religious duties: and if their minds be little illumined, their conduct is become more methodized and regular: better an erroneous faith, than no faith at all.'

Two letters are devoted to spirited animadversions on Sir Francis D'Ivernois's work "*On the Causes of the Usurpation*" &c. of which our readers had some account in the Appendix to our 33d vol. p. 495.

It appears, on the whole, that Miss Williams has been solicitous of collecting whatever she thought would instruct or interest her readers; and for this purpose she has not only observed characters and manners, but has abridged books: since her letter on the Italian expedition, and on the battle of Marengo, is compiled from the pamphlet of M. Petit; (see our with *visionaries.* 3d. An essential quality must be *probity*, clear unequivocal probity. 4th. We should be less distrustful of men *without talents and without credit*, than of *men of the world*, or men of ability and eloquence, sufficient to form and enforce systems of their own. 5th. We shall, perhaps, have a further wish, *not to read* in their history, that they have *attained worldly honours*, or *lived in ease and affluence.*—With these *five conditions*, I do not see that we can desire more. The three first are the only ones which are absolutely necessary; the two others are added to make assurance more sure, and carry precaution as far as it will go.'

Such are the outlines of this publication; and it appears to us that the subjects are afterward discussed in a calm, candid, and satisfactory manner, calculated to produce the conviction and obtain the assent of any unprejudiced mind.—A specimen of the author's reasoning will be found in the following passage:

'I desire the reader to recollect what has been before observed, concerning the different degrees of fanaticism; for there may be a certain warmth of imagination, inclining one too hastily to entertain some fantastic opinions, and yet very distant from delirium, and believing in extravagant visions. Such, however, is the excess we must attribute to the apostles, if what they have believed had no reality. For to *imagine*, for years, that we have been witnessing daily, a hundred uncommon and extraordinary things, which have passed before our eyes, and which were perfectly within our knowledge; things *palpable*, and *which we had leisure to examine;* things so striking, and so easy to discern, as the resurrection of a person well known; and the ascension of this person into heaven; in the open air—in the open day—on a rising ground—and we close by; to *imagine* not only that we have seen this person work divers miracles, but that we have ourselves performed many; to imagine, I say, that all this has really happened, when it has not happened, and that many persons at the same time should have the same chimæras, would indeed be a folly so extraordinary as to go beyond all example—and if it were possible that many heads should be so deranged, the rest of their conduct would soon discover it, and all their actions and discourse must necessarily expose their insanity.—But so far from there being any thing like this in the conduct and discourses of the apostles, the fact is, that we should have a difficulty in discovering the smallest trace of fanaticism.'

We cannot refrain from adverting briefly to a note inserted by the translator, in the 36th page of the work:—it had been justly remarked, concerning the discourses of Christ, that, 'his language is natural; familiar, without being low; noble, without being inflated; of a serious simplicity; and such precisely as the nature of the subject requires.'—'When it is not so, (says the note,) as seems to be the case in the 53d and four following verses of the sixth chapter of St. John's gospel, is it not to be charged to the *writer*, who in this and such instances has proved an *earthen vessel?*'—This phraseology may be, perhaps, a kind of *key* for discovering the translator:—but surely the remark is unnecessary, and rather ill-timed. It is well known that the Jewish people were not unaccustomed to hear religious and moral instruction represented by bread or food, which, when properly used, contributes to the support and nourishment of those who receive it; and some explication of this figurative language, or assistance for understanding it, is afforded in the 63d verse of the same chapter.—Numerous, we know, are the difficulties and objections which may be and have been made, and which have also been well answered, lessened, or removed: but this is not the place in which we might expect to have seen them produced, as in the instance above, and also in page 52.—The original work acknowleges, (page 51,) particularly respecting the Epistles, that there are passages which require explanation: but these are matters of separate investigation, and do not affect the authenticity of the books, the truth of the history, nor the validity and importance of its instructions; which form the great object of the pamphlet before us.

Though the translation of this tract appears to be executed with attention, the language sometimes bears too evident

s and dispassionate, to detect the glaring errors which have
on the stream of public opinion. Mr. Heslop, however, is
those discerning few, and has more than intimated that "our
ish" respecting inclosures is not likely "to give us our wish."
exposed a singular inconsistency in the Report of the Com-
of Waste Lands, which states an extraordinary and rapid in-
of inclosures to have taken place, from the period at which we
to be an exporting and began to be an importing country,
n recommends a general inclosing system as an effectual cure
evil! It is evident that the increase of inclosures has not aug-
the quantity of grain. Mr. H. asserts that the inclosure of
w under the plough would tend to diminish the growth of wheat,
are inclined to think that he is correct; for we cannot sup-
at the inclosure of the Isle of Thanet, or the open parts of
idgeshire, for instance, would improve them as corn-growing
es. All that is wanting, in most places, is a power of mutual
ge, for the sake of uniting property which is now separated
ttered throughout the arable fields.

H. mentions a curious fact relative to inclosures, which ought
t the public attention. He remarks that, 'in matters of high
nce, to proceed upon experience rather than speculation, is
dom. And from a review of this district (the parts of Buck-
shire below the Chiltern hills) and of those favourable to grass,
h my observations have extended, it appears, that in several
s which have been *long inclosed*, an acre of arable land is not to be
—in others, the quantity is extremely small;—and not suffi-
n any, I apprehend, to supply seed and food for the in-
ts,—though the quantity of arable land, prior to the inclosures,
be estimated, on the average, at about two thirds of the whole
elds.'

Heslop is of opinion that inclosures operate as a temptation to
to avoid the endless toils and expences of tillage, and to con-
eir arable land into pasture. Open fields are certainly pre-
for the growth of corn; and if it be the wish of the legisla-
make this a corn country, Mr. H.'s hints and quæries as to
ration of a General Inclosure Act will not be disregarded.

RELIGIOUS.

5. *Nuptiæ Sacræ*, or an Inquiry into the Scriptural Doctrine
arriage and Divorce. Addressed to the Two Houses of Par-
nt. 8vo. pp. 136. 3s. 6d. Wright.

author informs the august bodies which he addresses, that he
rried clergyman; and his performance does honor to that cha-
as well by the learning which it displays, as by the temper
it breathes. We are gratified to find the judgment of so able
pectable a person wholly coinciding with our own. The re-
of Bishop Horsley's interpretation of the text in St Mat-
ccupies the most considerable part of this tract; and it is
to be contrary to the opinions of the fathers, and of the most
d modern commentators, as well as inconsistent with all the
sacred criticism:—but, while the error of the Bishop is most
satisfac-

satisfactorily exposed, abundant justice is done to his talents and attainments.

We admire the spirit and good sense of the following passages:—on a former occasion, we attempted to convey similar sentiments:

'There is one maxim on which I must dwell with all earnestness. Whatever correction you apply to the evil, let it be but just sufficient for the purpose required; and, while you seek to repress offence, leave every possible opening to returning virtue. If the punishment goes beyond the necessity; if, in the violence of reform, terror is heaped upon terror, against the offenders, (for morals too have their excesses, and virtue, sometimes, riots,) it is easy to see the consequence. Society will grow universally depraved under a law superfluously rigorous. "Offences will come," and the passions will be more destructive in another direction. Terrified, at first, with thundering statutes, we shall learn to shelter ourselves from them under forced covers of our own invention. Every man, by degrees, will unguard the virtue of his house, hitherto sacred; and, through a corrupt agreement which will soon come to be generally understood, the husband will accommodate his neighbour, and be silently accommodated in return. Sad state of morals! where Justice is completely disarmed by private compact, and a dreadful stillness is spread over universal guilt!'—

'I have endeavoured to find a substitute for that provision of the late Bill, the disinclination to which occasioned the failure of the whole measure. I speak of the prohibition of intermarriage to the inlet to defamation. It was impossible to be easy, while, with a sanctimonious concern for your character, and an affected anxiety for your welfare, you were represented as opposers of the voice of God, as well as enemies of the happiness of man; equally regardless of our domestic virtue, and our public peace. I could enlarge upon this; but there are many reasons for not proceeding farther. I have done what appeared to be not foreign from my duty, and am content. I only wish it were possible for me to remove the perverse impression, which the late discussion has occasioned, by any means more effectual than the circulation of this treatise.'

Art. 17. *A seasonable Caution against the Abominations of the Church of Rome.* By the Rev. C. De Coetlogon, M.A. 12mo. 2d. Williams.

The spirit of Antichrist has appeared under different forms, but popery is justly regarded as its most prominent and distinguished figure; and this, it is well known, is so adverse to the natural rights and reasonable comforts of man, that it must be wise to adopt calm and temperate measures against its intrusions.—As to the little tract before us, we shall quote a few lines from the introduction; which is the best written part, perhaps, of the whole:

'What effect the favours which have been shewn by the clemency of our Government may produce from the members of the Romish church, I cannot presume to foretel: it is safe, however, to fear the worst, that we may be armed against it; and it is already evident, from matters of fact, that the youth of this nation, especially of the poorer sort, are in danger of being educated in the horrid principles of the church of Rome; thousands having been invited, and many received into popish seminaries in several parts of Great Britain.—The following caveat, which is prepared for the use of the *commonalty*, is not however designed to attack *persons*, of any denomination, but *things*; it is the sort of error which we mean to storm; error, in its nature fatal to the civil and religious liberties of Englishmen, and, which is infinitely more important, to their immortal souls.'

The design of this small pamphlet is good, and its tendency is useful: but it might have been more acceptable and suitable, had there been in it less of Calvinism and methodism; which are not weapons calculated for the attack and demolition of popery.

Art. 18. *Village Sermons;* or plain and short Discourses on the principal Doctrines of the Gospel, intended for the Use of Families, Sunday-Shools, or Companies assembled for Religious Instruction in Country Villages. By George Burder. 4 Vols. 12mo. 4s. 6d. sewed. Chapman. 1800.

The first three of these volumes have passed through several editions; each of them contains twelve sermons, but the fourth includes sixteen, by which arrangement a sermon is provided for every Sunday in the year. Their immediate intention is expressed in the title; and, as the design appears to be benevolent, we heartily wish that they may be successful in advancing that noblest of all purposes, the cause of Christian piety, charity, and general virtue. They have the advantage of being short, plain, affectionate, and earnest: but some objections occur to us.

Of one sermon, we observe it remarked that it is chiefly borrowed from two which had been preached at Oxford by the late Rev. W. Romaine; of others, we apprehend, it may be said that they are much in the manner of several of the old divines. Some, perhaps, we might peruse with but little objection, as particularly that concerning the *rich man* and *Lazarus*: at other times, we might point out passages which appear to be uncandid: they are presented to the public under the idea of being practical; they certainly are also *doctrinal*. It is remarkable that those writers and preachers, who are warm and positive in assuring men that they can *do nothing*, are most eager and earnest in persuading them to *do something*, and indeed *a great deal*.

One principle, perhaps in a little alliance with popery, pervades these volumes, viz. that what is here asserted is *the truth*, and that there is none other; and apparently a scheme or system is laid down which the Scriptures are to support, and by which they are to be explained.—However, we are willing to hope that these village sermons and village excursions, under wise and proper conduct, may contribute to private and public utility.

LAW.

Art. 19. *A short View of the Catholic Question*, in a Letter to a Counsellor at Law in Dublin. By the Hon. Henry Augustus Dillon, M.P. 8vo. pp. 50. 1s. 6d. Debrett. 1801.

rt. 21. *General Opinions on the Conduct of Ministers*, with Respect to the past and present State of Ireland, and inculcating the Justice and Policy of Catholic Emancipation. By Thomas Townshend, Esq. Barrister at Law, and a Member of the Irish Parliament. 8vo. pp. 80. 3s. Debrett. 1801.

Mr. Towushend considers this subject rather in a political than in
legal point of view. He is of opinion that the late administration
niformly adopted harsh and inexpedient measures with respect to
reland; and he observes, speaking of the union, that 'whatever
erits it may internally possess, those merits did not suit with the
igencies to which they were addressed; that, of several modes of
rrying it into effect, the ministry took the very worst which the
ost culpable ingenuity could discover; and that, in preferring this,
e worst of all means of accomplishing the Union, they have esta-
ished a precedent so perilous to the constitution, that a day should
t be lost until a vote of parliament declared the annihilation of that
ecedent, and that it shall never be brought into example hereafter.
nd inadaptable as the measure has been, and unwise and unprin-
pled as the progress of it has been pressed, yet, in order that any
fectual good may hereafter arise out of it, it is meant to inculcate,
strong as necessity, that all its good must depend on the tranquil-
y of Ireland, and that tranquillity on the most immediate restora-
on of all the Catholic rights and privileges, and the adoption of a
ild and lenient system, discountenancing intolerance, and abolish-
g for ever the artificial springs which have kept religious discord in
tivity.'

We have remarked considerable proofs of intelligence and inform-
ion in this production; though it appears to us that the author
not unfrequently precipitate in his conclusions, and by turns
bscure and declamatory in his style.

rt. 22. *The Case of Conscience solved*; or Catholic Emancipation proved to be compatible with the Coronation Oath, in a Letter from a Casuist in the Country to his Friend in Town. With a Supplement in Answer to Considerations on the said Oath, by John Reeves, Esq. 8vo. pp. 90. 2s. 6d. Faulder. 1801.

It is impossible not to approve the delicacy of conduct which his
lajesty has shewn on this most important question; though we may
e of opinion that his apprehensions are ideal, and that the difficulty,
hich is surmised, exists only in his conscience. A proposed
neasure may be incompatible with the coronation oath; or, though
n no degree militating with it, it may by an individual be supposed
o be in direct opposition to its nature. We conceive the latter to
e the case in the present instance; and the author of this well-
ritten and sensible pamphlet has confirmed us in these senti-
nents. He has evidently considered the question with great and due
ttention; and he supports his opinion, that the proposed measure of
atholic emancipation is not in opposition to the coronation oath,
oth by historical and by theological evidence. We are also presented
ith a curious and interesting statement of the several oaths, by
hich our sovereigns were bound at the different periods of our
history;

history; and this writer shews, in a satisfactory manner, that the oath introduced at the time of the Revolution, and which has been continued ever since, does not restrain the prince in matters of religious concern, in a greater degree than the oaths which preceded it. The tolerating measures, which were adopted by King William and George the First, plainly prove this point.—We have perused this publication with pleasure, and recommend it to the attention of our readers.

Art. 23. *Principles of the Bankrupt Law.* By Archibald Cullen, Esq. of the Middle Temple, Barrister at Law, and a Commissioner of Bankrupts. 8vo. pp. 490. 9s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

We have examined this performance with considerable attention, both because the subject is in itself sufficiently interesting, and because the decisions on it are numerous, and not always easily reconcileable. Where a trader acts *bonâ fide* towards his creditors, we are happy that the rigour of the common law is mitigated by the provisions of several statutes relative to bankrupts; and we can perceive adequate and satisfactory reasons, why the benefits of these positive regulations should not be extended to persons not employed in merchandice, or buying and selling.

'Bankruptcy and insolvency, (observes Mr. Cullen,) though sometimes confounded, are things perfectly distinct in law. One who is insolvent may never become a bankrupt, or be capable of becoming

Preceptors, Governesses, &c. In Three Parts. I. As relating chiefly to the Male Sex. II. With particular Reference to the Female Sex. III. Remarks of general Application to both. Small 8vo. 3s. Boards. Longman and Rees. 1800.

Pithy sentences of wisdom may so far be of value, as they tend to forcibly impress the mind, and are easily retained by the memory. Concise reasoning and truth, so exhibited as to arrest attention, like an axiom, will ever be acceptable and beneficial to the mass of mankind; though they are not to be considered as precluding the discussions of the wise, and though they should first receive the *imprimatur* of Experience. The multitude have not time to go to the bottom of the well after Truth; to them she must be made of easy access; and her *dicta* must be promulgated with all possible brevity. Wise men in all ages have seen the utility of aphorisms, and we are obliged to them for the quantity of good sense which they have often compressed in very few words. Perhaps there is no subject concerning which the public stand more in need of a few judicious and forcible maxims of conduct, than that of education; which, after all that has been written on it, remains but imperfectly understood. Solomon's aphorism, *Train up a child, &c.* declares the infinite importance of early tuition; and we ought to regard every thing which contributes to the formation of a perfect man, as included in the term education. It is indeed a word of greater import than it is commonly supposed to be; which must be evident if we consider its object, and the great variety of opinions and observations respecting it. In the little volume before us, are collected the remarks of some celebrated writers, of Locke, Rollin, Fenelon, La Bruyere, Rousseau, Madame de Genlis, Chesterfield, Edgeworth, &c. and the whole forms a manual which, we should think, all who are intrusted with the care of children would wish to peruse. The aphorisms, with an exception or two, are judicious. We extract a few as specimens:

'To be master of a child, it is necessary to be master of one's self.—J. J. Rousseau.'

'The most infallible way to make your child miserable, is to accustom him to obtain every thing he desires.—J. J. Rousseau.'

'To increase the vigour of the mind, we ought to increase the strength of the muscles.—J. J. Rousseau.'

'He that will have his son have respect for him and his orders, must himself have great reverence for his son: he must do nothing before him which he would not have him imitate.—Locke.'

'If you do not give your pupil strength of mind to conquer himself, every thing else that you teach him will be useless.—Madame de Genlis.'

'He that at any rate procures his child a good mind, well principled, tempered to virtue and usefulness, and adorned with civility and good breeding, makes a better purchase for him, than if he laid out the money for an addition of more earth to his acres.—Locke.'

'Mothers ought to be sensible how greatly incumbent it is upon them to instruct their daughters early in every thing relating to the interior government of a house, and to expences for clothes, equipages and furniture, for the education and bringing up of children, and for the management and sustenance of the servants.—Rollin.'

'Hinder your children, as much as may be, from being cunning, which has always a broad mixture of falsehood in it.—Locke.'

'Severity is seldom necessary in a well-conducted education.—Edgeworth.'

'Civility is what in the first place should with great care be made habitual to children and young people.—Locke.'

These are a few out of a series of useful maxims on the subject of instruction, which, for the benefit of the rising generation, cannot be too widely diffused. They may answer the purpose better than a formal treatise, and may occasionally stimulate parents and preceptors to a more faithful discharge of their duty.

Art. 25. *The Latin Scholar's Guide*, or Clarke's and Turner's Exercises corrected; together with References to the Originals from which the Sentences are extracted: by Mr. Tocquot, Author of the Royal Pocket English and French Dictionary. 8vo. pp. 459. 10s. 6d. stitched. Dulau. 1800.

Clarke's Exercises have been pretty well known to school-boys; and Mr. Tocquot appears to have rendered a considerable improvement to that work, by discovering the authors from whom the extracts are made, and referring the reader to the place in which distinct passages may be found. We have, indeed, accidentally observed both omissions and additions in some paragraphs which Mr. Clarke selected, and tenses; the immediate words, to which the rules laid down relate, are here distinguished in *Italics*, and to this it may be useful for the scholar to pay a careful regard.—Concerning this *Supplement*, we have farther to observe that a new edition also appears, separate from the larger volume, pp. 176, price 3s. 6d. stitched. It exhibits the words in *Italics*, but differs greatly from the former in the Latin; which is here all designedly false, and consequently affords an opportunity to the scholar to improve himself by restoring it in a grammatical and classical manner.

Art. 26. *The School-Room Party, out of School-Hours;* a little Work, that will be found, for young Ladies and Gentlemen, of every Description, a most pleasing Companion to the Leverian Museum. Small 12mo. 9d. Hurst. 1800.

Improving amusement for children, and not beneath the attention of older readers who may chance to find it in their pockets when visiting that valuable collection of natural curiosities, the Leverian Museum, on the South side of Black Friars' Bridge:—originally founded by our old and respected friend, the late Sir Ashton Lever.

POLITICS, &c.

Art. 27. *The Speech of the Honourable Charles James Fox*, on the Motion for an Inquiry into the State of the Nation, on the 25th of March, 1801. To which is added an Appendix, illustrating some Passages in the Speech, and contributing to the Means of forming a full Judgment upon the most momentous Questions that agitate the Public in the present Crisis. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett.

The speech of this able and eloquent statesman, on Mr. Grey's Motion for an Inquiry into the State of the Nation, excited, as it merited, general attention; and it is here printed, we believe, with singular accuracy.

Art. 28. *A Letter to the Hon. Spencer Perceval*, Solicitor-General to his Majesty, in Consequence of the Notice given by him, in the last Session of Parliament, that he would in the Present bring forward a Bill for the Punishment of the Crime of Adultery. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

This is a very forcible and eloquent philippic against the crime of adultery. The author is the advocate of the prohibitory clause; and against those who do not agree with him he deals out his censures with no unsparing hand. The style of this pamphlet shews the scholar, and the ends at which it aims bespeak the Christian: but the temper which pervades it indicates strong affinity to the Tabernacle. If, fearless of his anathemas, we question his judgment, we yet cordially applaud his design, and commend his zeal.

Art. 29. *Thoughts on the Frequency of Divorces in modern Times;* and on the Necessity of legislative Exertion to prevent their increasing Prevalence. By Adam Sibbit, M. A. 8vo. pp. 54. 2s. Cadell and Co. 1800.

The cause of domestic happiness and public security is here pleaded with virtuous intentions, and in glowing language. If we share in

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the fears expressed by Mr. Sibbit and others, that the regard for religion and for virtue in general is on the decline among us, it must be admitted that talents and attainments were never more entirely on their side, never exerted with more ability and zeal in their support. Valuable observations occur in these pages, on the causes of the degeneracy which we all lament; among which, great stress is laid on the manners, studies, pursuits, and dress of our females. Perhaps, however, our corruptions owe their introduction, and their prevalence, principally to the conduct of our own sex.

Like many who have signalized their zeal on this subject, Mr. Sibbit adopts the opinion that corrupt manners are to be reformed by pains and penalties: but, indebted to him as we feel ourselves for the service which he has rendered to virtue, we cannot altogether coincide with him in that sentiment. Mere legislation will effect no great change in manners: which can only be produced, in any great degree, by the example of those who stand in commanding situations.

In the handsome tribute which the author pays to the present Lord Chief Justice, he will have the concurrence of all who are acquainted with the conduct of that noble and distinguished person.

Art. 30. *Report of the State and Progress of the Institution for the Relief of the Poor of the City of London and Parts adjacent,* situate in New-Street, and Friar-Street, Blackfriars; with a List of the Subscribers. 8vo. 1s. Phillips, Lombard-Street.

Art. 31. *Thoughts on Parliamentary Reform*, and on Reform in general: in which the Nature of the British Constitution, the Government, its component Parts, and Establishments, &c. &c. are freely but briefly considered. By an Ex-member of the present Parliament. 8vo. 1s. Jordan.

A writer of thoughts on so unfashionable a subject as *reform* must be contented with few readers, and fewer admirers. No dexterity, sprightliness, and originality, not even his avowal of strong Toryism, will secure him from suspicion and obloquy; the cloven foot of Jacobinism will be thought to lurk under the mildest expressions; and every proposed amendment will be said to mean subversion and anarchy. What, then, could induce this Ex-member of Parliament to exhibit himself in the odious character of *The Reformer?* Let it not, however, be supposed that he is either a republican or a leveller. In his chapter of *likes* and *dislikes*, he thus draws his political portrait:

'First, then, I like Monarchy above all forms of government; I like the English the best of all monarchical forms: and I like the English Monarch better than any I have ever read or heard of—God bless him! But I dislike that the expences of Government should have no reference to the public burden; I dislike profusion in national establishments, when there is a general necessity for œconomy in private expenditure; and I equally dislike shabby reform. I dislike destroying small places, and distressing poor families; but I should like, when all are suffering, that large sinecures, large salaries, where there is but little to do, and overgrown emoluments, should cease, or at least be regulated.

'I like, above all things, the aristocratic part of the British Constitution; I like it as an incentive and as a reward to virtuous actions; I like it as a political and as a moral institution, but I dislike its rapid increase; I dislike that the least infringement should be made on this feudal, dignified, and valuable establishment; I dislike to see its avenues opening to borough influence and to commerce; and I dislike to see the old families living so little with their tenantry.

'I like the representative system, as the constitution wills it to be; I like that the body of the people should send to the National Council, freely and uncorruptedly, such of their neighbours (having strong local connections and a great national stake) as may appear to them most worthy the trust; but I dislike to see the House of Commons filled with merchants and tradesmen. I dislike to see corporations returning on usurped privilege; and I dislike to see persons sitting in Parliament for places they have never been near, and by purchases made without ever leaving their 'compting-houses.

'I like (generally speaking) the fairness, the justice, and the equality, of the Laws; I like, beyond expression, the inflexible honour and integrity of the judges, their wisdom, their attention, their humanity: but I dislike that the expences of law should be such, that no person of small fortune can seek justice, without his ruin being as certain as his success.

'I like to see property protected, but I dislike to see the unfortunate oppressed. I like credit, as a national concern, very well,

but

but I like liberty better; I like that property should be answerable for property, but I dislike that, for a credit voluntarily given, the debtor should be confined for life.

'In all these points I should like a Reform; but I should like that Reform to originate with the Executive Power, and to be effected by the wisdom of the Legislative. I should dislike to see it ever effected in any other way, and I should like the existing Government to be always so strong, as to destroy every idea of opposing it by force.

'I should like to throw out any hint that wisdom and power may turn to use; and I conclude this chapter of Likes and Dislikes with observing, that I like butter very much, but in this time of scarcity (or at least dearness) of corn, I dislike to see many thousand acres of land in my neighbourhood, which would produce six quarters of wheat per acre, furnishing little or nothing towards the necessaries of life.

'For particular reasons I like to assume the signature of SEVEN.'*

The writer begins his plan with recommending economy in the household; he then discusses the subjects of sinecures, patent places, pensions, and public grants—proposes a new office—describes what a Peer of Parliament should be—gives hints for a history of the House of Commons, in which such an anecdote of the present state of representation is introduced as we venture not to copy—proposes remedies against the usurpation of the elective franchise, by cor-

The first volume contains poetical essays, written chiefly on trifling occasions, without any great melody of numbers, strength of sentiment, or splendor of imagery. They are such as the author considered probably as *jeux d'esprit*, not possessing either interest or excellence enough for the public, but rather calculated to enliven a circle of friends; who, not being morose critics, might be disposed to extract entertainment from small sources.—Let it not, however, be understood that the poetry is contemptible: but its character is that of mediocrity; and mediocre poets, we know,

> " Nor Gods, nor men, nor columns will endure."

Good poetry we seldom find: but good prose is less rare; and Mr. Maclaurin appears in the second volume to greater advantage than in the first. Yet we cannot characterize him as either a very lively or a very profound prose writer; though he occasionally exhibits learning and acuteness, and always an ardent love for the liberties of mankind. Some of his political opinions, however, and particularly those which bear reference to the French Revolution, will probably not meet with general approbation and concurrence; and the learned senator himself might perhaps have somewhat altered his views, if he had lived to the present time. His paper on the vote of judges is shrewdly written; and the humorous argument against putting separate questions deserves to be repeated.

'I have heard a very ingenious and humorous argument stated against putting separate questions. Four men (it was said) having met to drink a bowl of punch; after the first glass, one of them objected that it was too sweet, but on a vote it carried three to one that it was not; another maintained it was too sour, but that objection was over-ruled by the same majority; the objection of a third, that it was too strong, shared the same fate; as did that of the fourth, that it was too weak. Thus it carried upon separate questions that the punch was liable to no objection, yet none of the company would drink it; and, had the question been put in general, is the punch good or bad? It would have been declared bad with unanimity.'

The last essay, to prove that Troy was not taken by the Greeks, is a very moderate performance.

Art. 33. *The Miscellaneous Works of Bishop Atterbury.* With Historical Notes by John Nichols. 8vo. 5 Vols. 1 l. 15 s. Boards. Nichols.

We have had occasion to notice the progress of this work, from the publication of the first two volumes of the Bishop's Correspondence *, to the separate appearance of the third † and fourth ‡ volumes. The whole are now republished, newly arranged, and with the addition of a fifth volume; which is introduced by a biographical sketch of the author, containing many curious particulars relating to his private and political transactions. It happens, however, in this as in most other cases, that the accumulation of private papers is rather a source of perplexity than of pleasure to the general reader. It would be much better to follow the plan of the French Memoir-writers; that is, to extract every thing interesting from the mass of correspondence, and to form it into a narrative: adding the original papers as *proofs*.

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* M. R. vol. lxix. p. 4. † M. R. vol. lxxi. p. 41. ‡ M. R. vol. lxxvii. p. 355.

We must bestow the praise of industry and perseverance on Mr. Nichols: but we apprehend that he has now collected much more respecting this turbulent character, than readers in general will wish to know. The literary talents of Atterbury, which were over-rated by party-violence, could alone be objects of inquiry at present; and concerning them we meet with little worth remarking in these volumes.

Art. 34. *A New System of Short-Hand,* by which more may be written in one Hour, than in an Hour and a Half by any other System hitherto published; which is here fully demonstrated by a fair Comparison with one of the best Systems extant; with a Short and easy Method by which any Person may determine, even before he learns this System, whether it will enable him to follow a Speaker. By Samuel Richardson. 8vo. 7s. 6d. sewed. Vernor and Hood.

When the contest is for brevity, he must feel the proudest who is found to be the shortest among the short. To this merit, Mr. Richardson's system aspires; and to prove that it does not arrogate throughout the Whole of the Survey; which, for farther Accommodation, is extended to Hampstead, Highgate, Islington, Highbury, Hornsey-House, Stoke-Newington, Hoxton, Hackney, Walworth, Newington-Butts, Lambeth, Vauxhall, Brompton, Kensington, Paddington, &c. &c. To which are also added, Abstracts of the Hackney-Coach and Porterage Acts: a copious Index, containing the Whole of the Streets described, their relative Situations, Lengths, and Reference to the Pages where each may be found; List of Coach Stands; and ruled Leaves for minuting Distances. Small 8vo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Cary. 1801.

This extremely comprehensive and analytical title-page sufficiently points out the utility of the work; and Mr. Cary's known talents and accuracy are pledges for the proper execution of the design. A very neat new plan of London, Westminster, and Southwark, may be had to accompany the *Guide*, price 1s. 6d.

Art. 36. *The World in Miniature;* containing a curious and faithful Account of the Situation, Extent, Climate, Productions, &c. &c. of the different Countries of the World, compiled from the best Authorities; with proper References to the most essential Rules of the French Language, prefixed to the Work, and the Translation of the difficult Words and idiomatical Expressions. By Nicholas Hamel, Rector of the Town of L'Aigle, Author of a French Grammar, and several other School Books. 12mo. pp. 251. 3s. 6d. Bound. Hurst. 1800.

This work, we are told, 'has been undertaken rather to promote the easy acquirement of French and geography, than to present to the world specimens of fine writing.' The essential rules of syntax, by which it is introduced, appear to contain useful remarks and directions; and we observe throughout the volume references to these rules, together with French words and phrases at the foot of every page, admonishing the reader how to express himself in that language. The writer appears to be well acquainted with *Guthrie's* geographical work: but we rather wonder that he should have chosen to cast his compilation into an alphabetical form, which seems to deprive youth of part of the instruction which they ought to receive on the subject, and is also likely to occasion some repetitions. One instance, respecting the camel, may be observed on comparing the 28th page with the 145th. Though, however, the attentive reader may discern some defects in this volume, we consider it as a pretty and compendious account of the different countries of our globe; intended, as the author says, 'not only to remind the pupil of the most essential rules of the French grammar, and lead him progressively through the greatest difficulties of the language, but at the same time to introduce him to a knowlege of geography, a science, allowed to be one of the most useful, especially to the inhabitants of a commercial country.'

POETRY, &c.

Art. 37. *Out at last!* or, The fallen Minister. By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 1s. 6d. West and Hughes. 1801.

It was not to be imagined that this writer would see the "G. – of his idolatry" descend from the lofty height of ministerial power, on which

West and Co.

“ More Pitt!”—but the Ex-Minister c
accompanied by several quondam friends.
dressed, with due respect, to *The King:*
the Bard embraces the happy opportunit
services to his Majesty, should the office o
cant.—Then, seizing his old blunt pen of
ceremoniously be-odes Lord H—k—y,
Rose, Esq.; Pitt again, *and again*; and
Dundas.—Several little Tales, &c. are int
with regard to the general character and
tions.—One of these Episodical parts may
purpose of enabling our readers to judge
poetic powers of this veteran satirist:

‘ A fellow troubled with the itc
(Like Courtier-men) of getti
And learning that a Doctor, (nc
By means of a most potent pill
Did verily and truly fill
Full many a time with gold his s
Resolv’d, by pill, to make a fo
So set about it without more a
Hoist but the standard, folks
With heads as empty as the *dr*
The Quack puffs off his pill—
And numbers quickly flock’d a
A Bumpkin came among the
And thus the Man of Pill addr
“ *Zur*, hearing what is come
That your fine pill hath cur’d

His bowels sore with pains were rent;
Such was the pill's *surprising* pow'r.

No longer able to contain,
Hob, in a hurry, left the lane:
How decent!—what can decency surpass?
And sought the grove— where Hob's two eyes,
Wide staring, saw with huge surprise
His long-ear'd servant J ck, his Ass!
Ye Gods! how happy was the meeting!
Hob kissing Jack, and Jack Hob greeting.

" Adzooks! a lucky pill! 'quoth Hob:
Yes, yes, the pill hath done the job."
Pill grew the subject of the village tattle:
At last it gain'd a heap of fame;
Not only good for *blind* and *lame*,
But good, too, for recovering all *stray'd cattle*.

' *Now ponder well, ye Parents dear*—
Pitt's no *Catholicon*, I fear!
Pitt is a violent *cathartic*,
Creating very grievous gripes
(In butcher phrase) among our *tripes*,
Making the stomach, head, and heart sick:

' Producing much evacuation
Unto a poor consumptive Nation,
That wants *restoratives* called *Pounds*,
To give her strength, and heal her wounds.

' Though *clever* in his Treasury *rostrum*,
Pitt never yet possess'd a *nostrum*
For bringing *all stray'd Millions* back again:
The Guineas he sent out, we find,
Were like so many beetles, blind,
Rambling the Lord-knows where, like show'rs of rain,
Making the German regions smile,
Instead of Albion's famish'd Isle.'

rt. 39. *Unio, sive Lamentatio Hibernica, Poema Macaronico-Latinum.* And an Ode to Peter Pindar. 4to. 1s. Wright, &c. 1801.

We should congratulate ourselves on the appearance of every spenen of Macaronic poetry, if it always answered the *jocular* definition re given of it—' *A happy mixture:*' * but there is little entertainnt in the mere hotch-potch of languages; and unless the wit be ominent, and the satire well pointed, the Latinization of English rds affords no very happy method ' *dullum killere tempus.*' There some humour in the descriptive parts of this poem: but they resemble lanes which lead nowhere. The author (*hibernicè*) has concluded his poem without ending it.—His Lamentation on the Union, however, is so far a happy mixture, that it is truly laughable; though the simile will not be relished by the lovers of *Old Black-Strap*.

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* ' *Meâ quidem sententiâ, (modestè tamen et humiliter, forsan et stulte* mar) *Verbum hoc Macaronicum derivatum est ex Græco* Μακαρων— ασι felicium *rerum conjunctio*, or, *happy mixture*.'

> ' Qualis ubi vini Mercator, vel *Manufactor*
> Uno conglomerans *pipo* vaccinia miscet,
> Bacciferas fruges, *Brandeyum*, *Portugal* et *Stum*,
> *Sloe juice* cum *rotten-eggs*, *raw beef*, acidumque *cyderum*,
> Mixturamque vocat *Port-Wine*; quo *freely* recepto,
> *Gripatur* stomachus, furit in præcordia virus,
> Pes titubat, *droopat* caput, et vox faucibus hæret,
> Potor * et ipse cadit, folium ceu mense Novembris.
> Haud secus Anglorum primus Regisque Minister
> Imperio Britonum miscet, magnoque Senatu
> Omnigenos homines, omnique ex parte coactos,
> Trans mare, trans *Tweedam*; quos ultima *Cambria* parcè
> Nutrivit—sterilis quos *Scotia* vomit, et—*O fie!*
> *Erin* †, *Erin*, βογοτροττα, βρογισφιρα, και βρογοφωπ ‡,
> Te tua progenies, gremio nutrita paterno,
> Deseruit, vili penitus te vendidit auro.
> Hos grege commiscens unâ, *like a drover of wild geese*,
> *Whiggos* cum *Toriis*, *Privy-Counsellors* et *Borough-mongers*,
> *Bribibus* et titulis emptos, vi denique facto,
> Insuper his addit *Spinam*, *Shamroga*, *Rosamque*,

for those documents, he entertains us with a poem, of no inconsiderable merit in point of composition, in which poor Ireland bewails most pathetically the loss of her independence, &c.

> " Where—where is the spirit of liberty fled,
> Display'd by your fathers of old;
> When at *Derry* and *Boyne* for that freedom they bled,
> Which now, by your *fears* or by *avarice* led,
> You barter for safety, or gold?"

Art. 41. *The Vernal Walk:* a Poem. 8vo. 1s. Crosby and Co. 1801.

Most poets have written on the Spring, and those who have little claim to that title have followed their example. They have invoked the Sun, the Moon, and the Planets, to assist them, and have made all the Seasons dance either to rhime or to blank verse. Love is sure not to be forgotten in a Spring-poem; and indeed the flower-generating season must excite *la belle passion*. The present poetical ambulator, who has the merit of surveying Nature with an eye of taste, soon meets Love in his vernal walk. Scarcely has he finished his opening address to the Sun, whom he hails as the

> ' —— noblest likeness of the Deity;'

when he hastens to seek his chosen friend *Ianthe*, with whom he wishes to contemplate the beauties of rural scenery in the vernal season.—Spring is thus apostrophized:

> ' O Spring; delightful season! rosy health
> Salutes thy reign rejoicing, and along
> Thy painted meads, with lightly-bounding step,
> Dance love and sportive pleasure.——'

After a well-delineated picture of Winter, though not equal to the shorter Address to Deity, p. 32, we are interested in the overwhelming sorrows of *Damon* for the loss of his *Matilda;* who is said to have been as fair

> ' As nature in the robes of early spring.'

The next pair of lovers, however, are more fortunate:

> ' Many a time,
> When morn, first waking, heard, or pensive eve
> In silence listen'd to their whisper'd talk,
> Along thy pebbly banks, telling the tale
> Of love, have CLIO and LUCINDA stol'n,
> Thy valley streamlet is their fav'rite haunt;
> And where yon ancient beeches, garlanded
> With twining woodbines, o'er the verdant turf
> Extend the sylvan twilight, I behold
> The happy lovers. Oft th' impassion'd youth
> Bends o'er the blushing maid in fondest love,
> And clasps her to his bosom: then they look

Unutterable things, and sigh away
Their souls in tenderness.'

Though this poem is far from being faultless, it manifests a mind capable of feeling and of boldly sketching the beauties of nature; as will be evident from the following painting:

'Behold yon mountain! Hoary son of time!
King of the landscape! in gigantic state
Superior, frowning on this vale, he tow'rs
Majestic, vast, and horrid. In his clefts
The humble floweret blooms, and with its sweets
Perfumes the ALPINE breezes: stunted trees
Pine on his crags, and round his gloomy sides
Roll the blue clouds of heav'n. His rugged head
Is crown'd with hills of snow, which winter plac'd
When there he sat enthron'd, and gave his storms
Commission to destroy the trembling world,
Which, like a mighty map, immensely wide
Spreads far around below. Down his dark sides
Loud thundering torrents roll, and on the plains
Uniting, form a powerful stream, which flows
Magnificent, where yon meandering woods
Betray it's hidden course.
Let us ascend
Yon mighty mountain. What, tho' rude the way

for harmonious versification; which is the first requisite for entering the temple of the Muses.

The Vale of *Trent* appears to be the author's *natale solum;* a circumstance which has evidently inspired him with an amiable prejudice in favour of the scenes of the early pastimes of his youth; and which also, with pleasure, recalls to *our minds* the delightful banks of the Trent, in Staffordshire, &c. which we have formerly had occasion to visit.

Art. 43. *A Peep at Provincial Routs.* 4to. 1s. Wright. 1801.

This performance is chiefly to be praised for the writer's good intention in exposing the general frivolity of our Provincial *Routs;* though, after all, we do not think that the conduct of the good ladies, who usually compose these assemblies, is a very important object; and we are sorry that the author has, on this occasion, proved nothing so clearly as that he has evidently mistaken his literary talents. We cannot predict that, in *Satire,* he will ever rank with Juvenal or Horace, with Boileau, with Pope, or with Young.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 44. Delivered in the Parish Church of Merton, in the County of Surrey, before the Corps of Merton Volunteer Infantry, Oct. 26, 1800. By the Rev. James Olive, of Emanuel College, Cambridge. 8vo. 1s. Rivingtons.

Sentiments well adapted to the occasion are neatly arranged in this discourse. The preacher is spirited without being violent, and patriotic without being uncharitable. He calls our attention to the great and consoling doctrine of the universal dominion of Divine Providence; reminds us of the singular protection which, in various trying circumstances, this country has repeatedly received; compliments us as not altogether undeserving of the prosperity which we have enjoyed; deprecates all despondency on account of the present aspect and pressure of the times; and exhorts to unanimity, fortitude, temper, and virtue:—in short, 'to act as our best principles shall direct, and to leave the rest to heaven.'—This is the sure way of finding God *our strength and deliverer:* Text, Ps. xviii. 2.

Art. 45. Preached at Scarborough, Sep. 28, 1800, and published at the Request of the Bailiffs and Burgesses of the Corporation of that Town. By J. A. Busfield, A.M. 8vo. 1s. Johnson.

In this orthodox discourse we find nothing remarkable, except an assertion, founded on the authority of the Abbé Barruel, that Voltaire 'died invoking the pardon and mercy of the once despised Saviour.'

The biographers of Voltaire do not record this circumstance, but give a totally opposite account. The *Vie de Voltaire, suivie d'Anecdotes qui composent sa Vie privée, par T. J. D. V.,* published in 1797*, details the conversation between the priest who forced himself on the philosopher on his death-bed, and adds—" *le curé se retire, et va annoncer aux prêtres de son clergé que Voltaire meurt en philosophe; qu'il meurt comme il a vécu; qu'il ne l'enterrera pas; et que s'il y est forcé par des ordres superieurs, il le fera exhumer pendant la nuit, et jeter à la voirée.*"

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* See Rev. vol. xxix. N. S. p. 525.

We have been informed that the clergy of Paris in general reprobated the ill-judged zeal of their *confrère;* and that the *curé* of St. Roch, a wise and good man, observed when speaking of Voltaire, " *que ce n'etoit point une conversion à faire, mais une conversion à escamoter, et qui eût fait honneur à l'église.*" The friends of Christianity may lament the persevering infidelity of such a man as Voltaire, but a misrepresentation of facts can be of no service to any cause.

After all, the circumstance is of no consequence in a general view. Neither Voltaire's life nor his death affects the arguments for revealed religion; and neither his perseverance in nor retractation of infidelity would have any effect on the inquiring Christian's sentiments.

CORRESPONDENCE.

We should readily have bestowed some inquiry on the application of the epithet *golden tressed* to the sun, in consequence of Mr. Dunster's obliging note, if we did not apprehend that Milton might have derived it as readily from his Greek reading as from any English writer. Aristophanes uses this epithet in several places; particularly in the Ορνιθες.

———— ιν’ ὁ χρυσοκομος
Φοιβος ακουων ————

Spenser also comes very near to this expression in his eighth Canto:

> " His snowy front curled with golden hairs,
> Like Phœbus' face adorn'd with sunny rays."

Gawin Douglas likewise approaches it, in his beautiful description of May;

> " Furth of his palice riall ischit Phœbus,
> With goldin crown, and vissage glorius,
> Crisp haris, bricht as chrissolite or topas,
> For quhais hew mycht nane behald his face."
>
> Folio edit. 1710. p. 399.

We trust, therefore, that Mr. Dunster will excuse us for retaining our opinion that Sylvester has not an exclusive claim to this figure.

A letter signed M— de T—, dated from Chester, relates to a work which we have not seen.

*** The APPENDIX to the xxxivth Vol. of the MONTHLY REVIEW, containing analyses of various important FOREIGN PUBLICATIONS, with the *General Title, Table of Contents*, and *Index*, for the Volume, is published with this Number of the Review.

THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JUNE, 1801.

ART. I. *The* Duke de la Rochefoucault Liancourt's *Travels through the United States of North America.*

[*Article concluded from the last Review.*]

HAVING so closely accompanied M. de Liancourt in his first tour, we must content ourselves with giving a general sketch of the rest of his travels, and taking notice of some of the most remarkable parts of his narrative.

In his second tour, the Duke visited South Carolina and Georgia; travelled through the province of Virginia to the Blue Mountains; and returned through Baltimore into Pennsylvania. He left Philadelphia in the end of March 1796, in a vessel bound to Charleston; and in this passage he remarked the little respect shewn by the Americans to men in high public situations, some of his fellow-passengers being of that description. Of Charleston he says; 'Every thing peculiar to the buildings of this place is formed to moderate the excessive heats; the windows are open, and the doors pass through both sides of the houses.' Some of the opulent inhabitants prefer wooden houses, which they believe to be cooler than brick; and persons vie with one another, not who shall have the *finest*, but who shall have the *coolest* house.

'Here are few families who do not keep a coach or chaise. The ladies are never seen to *walk on foot.* However short the journey, the carriage must always be yoked. Even the men, too, make frequent use of their carriages. The expence of servants is likewise considerable. These, both male and female, are negro and mulatto slaves. An inhabitant of Carolina, though not very opulent, rarely has fewer than twenty of these in his stables, in his kitchen, and attendant upon his table. A child has a number of negro children to attend him, and comply with all his humours; so that the little white man learns, even before he can walk, to tyrannize over the blacks.'

‘ The merchants of Charleston carry on an active trade :—but from the hour of four in the afternoon they rarely think of aught but pleasure and amusement. There are two gaming houses, both constantly full.—Both men and women here soon begin to lose the bloom of youth, and to feel the infirmities of age. At thirty, a woman appears old : you often see women with children at the breast, who yet have all the wrinkles and haggard looks of sixty.’—At Charleston, and (we believe) in every part of the United States, great kindness has been shewn to the French emigrants.

By a computation made in 1790, the state of South Carolina contained 107,100 slaves, and 141,979 white people. The negroes are said to commit fewer criminal offences, in proportion to their numbers, than the white people. Free negroes, from the age of sixteen to fifty, pay a poll-tax of two dollars *per annum* to the state.

South Carolina is divided by nature into two parts, Upper and Lower. Along the coast, and more than one hundred miles westward, the country is flat and level. Here are the swamps, some of which are called the tide swamps, and others the inland swamps.

‘ Behind them the country swells into hills and rises in progressive of the police. It is very common all over South Carolina, and, in some measure, worshipped by the inhabitants of the town. No law, it is true, has been enacted, which prohibits to kill this bird, but the public opinion, nevertheless, carefully attends to its preservation.'

In manufactures, also, and in science, the inhabitants of South Carolina are represented as very indolent: but Charleston possesses a library and a medical society, and colleges are building.

M. de Liancourt has given a particular account of the methods of clearing and cultivating the Rice-grounds. The produce of the culture of rice, he says, is as variable as that of any other branch of agriculture, and fluctuates from two to four barrels per acre. The barrel weighs 625lbs.—Vegetation is very powerful in this country.

'The luxuriance of the woods stands unrivalled; there are eighteen different species of oak, particularly the live-oak, palmetto or cabbage-tree, cucumber-tree, deciduous cypress, liquidambar, hickory, &c. In short, all the species of trees, which are so excessively dear in Europe, ten of which are bought to save one, for which both situation and soil are carefully selected, and which yet never attain any considerable height, are here the natural produce of the country, and thrive most excellently.'

The bite of the Rattlesnake is more dangerous here than in the Northern provinces:

'The juice of *plantago virginiana, Linn.* or the root and branches of mahuba bruised, are the remedies most commonly applied. Either of these plants is sufficient, but they are deemed more efficacious when they are applied jointly. A tobacco leaf steeped in rum, or a single leaf of one of the above plants, takes off the pain and swelling. Cesar, a negro, discovered this means in South Carolina; he proved its efficacy to the Assembly of the States, in 1780, by causing a rattle-snake to bite him; and obtained for this arcanum his liberty, and a pension of one hundred guineas a year. The rattle-snakes are as peaceful in Carolina, as they are in the north; they never bite but on being touched.'

Georgia is described by the author as the worst regulated province of the Union; the natives being 'a compound of all European countries, and of the other American provinces.' 'Agriculture is much the same as in South Carolina, and almost all the land is good.' The people have frequent disputes with the Indian nations on the borders: among which are the Creeks, 'who, (it is said,) contrary to the general case, are increasing in numbers.' The back settlers of Georgia are here represented as being equally savage with the Indian tribes.

'These Indians (the Cherokees, the Chactaws, and Creeks) cultivate the land with more care than those in the northern states. They keep such negroes as they carry away in their petty wars, or those who desert to them. They treat them as slaves, but behave well to them; are sparing of them in labour, and share with them their own food. I have been assured, that there are some Indians who have no fewer than thirty negroes; these carry the produce of their husbandry to Pensacola, by which means Georgia is deprived of considerable advantages.

'I have heard an anecdote of one of these Indians, which, I believe, will give a clear idea of their manner of thinking. The Creeks had occasion to assemble some years ago concerning a treaty with the United States: one Talasking, a famous warrior amongst them, who had always declared himself a friend to the United States, opposed every act of hostility against them, and was consequently well known, came to New York, the place of meeting, after the Assembly had already been opened. He there found, that one Malasky, who had distinguished himself by his inveteracy against the United States, and by the mischiefs he had done them, was well treated, and even caressed by the American commissioners. This circumstance raised his indignation to such a degree, that, although he was himself well-treated, he left the Assembly after two days, and became an enemy to the States.'

From Georgia the author returned into South Carolina. He was prevented, by other avocations, from making a tour through North Carolina: but he has drawn up a short history of that

Another law exists which is more rigidly enforced, and which interdicts inoculation for the small-pox without permission from the justices, and from all the neighbours within the distance of two miles. 'Any physician who should presume to inoculate without these precautions, would be punished by a fine of ten thousand dollars. Whoever is accidentally attacked by the small-pox is carried to a lonely house in the middle of the woods, and there he receives medical assistance. If the village, the town, the district, to which he belongs, catch the infection, these places are cut off from all communication with the rest of the country, and are permitted to have recourse to inoculation: otherwise it is never allowed.' The Virginians assign many of the old popular reasons for this law: but the author heard that the real motive was the unwillingness of the planters to inoculate their negroes.

The Duke visited a coal mine in the neighbourhood of Richmond, of which he gives the following account:

> 'In the lowest ground the vein runs one hundred and twenty feet below the surface, and is, in general, twenty-four feet thick. The ground from the surface down to the vein consists of a good red and yellow clay, interspersed with stone, easily reducible to dust. The vein is enveloped in a small layer of imperfect slate, and rests on a bed of granite; a circumstance, which, in the opinion of my friend, Mr. Guillemard, must puzzle all the naturalists of Europe. The coals of this mine, and indeed of all those which have hitherto been opened in this country, are very small, and the most solid pieces which can be obtained crumble into dust at the slightest shock, so that they are more adapted to be used in the forges of smiths, than to be burned in grates. Some veins, it is supposed, contain more solid coals: if this should be the case, the mine would prove far more profitable for the owners: but this supposition remains as yet a matter of mere conjecture.'

Five hundred negroes were employed in working this mine. The owners, 'who are neither chemists nor mechanicians, are content to grope their way without applying for advice to more enlightened men.'—The farmers are not better managers of their land than those of the Northern provinces.

Among the Duke's *pleasantries*, none occur more frequently than those which relate to the little estimation in which, he is pleased to say, our countrymen are held by the Americans; and the great fondness which is every where shewn by them for Frenchmen. The following description seems to have been written *con amore*:

> 'It was near nine at night when I arrived at Goochland. A party was about to break up: the accounts were settled; every one had already mounted his horse, and nothing prevented their separation but the irresolution and prattle common to drunken people, and

the usual attachment between them when they meet to get intoxicated together. By my manner of talking English to the landlord, the company easily discerned that I was a Frenchman. Immediately they jumped all off their horses, pulled me down from mine, clasped me in their arms, and exclaimed—" You are a Frenchman—well, you are our friend, our dear friend; we would all of us die for every Frenchman; we are good republicans, we would kill all the English; that would be an excellent thing, would not it? Oh, our friend, our dear friend!"—" He is a Frenchman," they said to each other, " the brave dear gentleman is a Frenchman! But as you are a Frenchman, you must drink some grog with us."—They embraced me, pulled me about in every direction, and shook me by the hand.—" Do pray tell us what we can do for you; you are our brother."

This is sufficient for a single dose. In another part of his travels, the Duke relates that he met some people 'whose opinions were just and sensible, and their judgments extremely correct. They hate England!' Here is less in quantity, but compensation is made in the quality.

Continuing his journey to the westward towards the mountains, M. de Liancourt visited the estate of Mr. Jefferson at Monticello. The house, which commands a very extensive prospect, stands on the summit of one of the ridge of mounsituation, and regains, according to the same circumstances, more or less speedily the power of producing new crops.'—

'Mr. Jefferson has very wisely relinquished this system. He has divided all his land under culture into four farms, and every farm into seven fields of forty acres. Each farm consists, therefore, of two hundred and eighty acres. His system of rotation embraces seven years, and this is the reason why each farm has been divided into seven fields. In the first of these seven years wheat is cultivated; in the second, Indian corn; in the third, pease or potatoes; in the fourth, vetches; in the fifth, wheat; and in the sixth and seventh, clover. Thus each of his fields yields some produce every year, and his rotation of successive culture, while it prepares the soil for the following crop, increases its produce. The abundance of clover, potatoes, peas, &c. will enable him to keep sufficient cattle for manuring his land, which at present receives hardly any dung at all, independently of the great profit which he will in future derive from the sale of his cattle.

'Each farm, under the direction of a particular steward or bailiff, is cultivated by four negroes, four negresses, four oxen, and four horses. The bailiffs, who in general manage their farms separately, assist each other during the harvest, as well as at any other time, when there is any pressing labour.'

Having made a circuitous route, traversing the Blue Mountains and the southern part of Maryland, the Duke arrived at Philadelphia, July 20th, 1796.

After this tour, we have the account of another expedition, into the Northern Provinces; and also of a journey to Washington, or the Federal City, in 1797. A large portion of the Second Volume, however, is occupied by commercial and political information, much of which is compilation; such as the constitution of the Union, the history and constitutions of different Provinces, account of public debts, taxes, laws, and police, &c.

The author's description of Washington City includes a history of its foundation. He entertains the same opinion which some other travellers in America have expressed, i. e. that the plan is on a scale too grand for the present state of the American Provinces; and he reasons on the probability that there may be a separation, or dissolution of the Union, before the country attains a population proportioned to such a capital. Among the inconveniences of the plan, he mentions the great distance of the president's house from the sittings of the congress. 'Here,' says he, 'are two centers at the distance of a mile and a half from each other.'—He does not encourage the expectation that this city will ever arrive at that degree of prosperity, for which the original projectors were sanguine enough to hope. The season of experiment, however, has now arrived; and the benefits as well as the defects of the plan must soon appear.

Besides much discussion of *general* politics, the author enters largely into *party* disputes. One section is intitled, 'State of parties from the adoption of the constitution to the present period.' It can scarcely be necessary to remark that this is written in the spirit of party.—Among matters of a more general nature, we find an interesting account of the election of Mr. Adams to the office of President of the United States. The ceremonies attending his installation were very few and simple.

In estimating the increase or decrease of trade by the value of exports, it is difficult to make the proper allowances for variations in the prices: especially in the last seven years, during which period there has been a progressive and great increase of price in almost every article of commerce. The quantity of tonnage employed is a more certain standard. The author has in some instances given both: in others, only the former; according, we imagine, to his opportunities of obtaining information. In a table of the exports of the principal articles of the produce of the United States from 1791 to 1796, both years inclusive, (see Vol. II, p. 589,), which table is made up from the totals of the exports of the particular States, the every thing to go and rejoin it whenever a favourable opportunity offered itself.'

Such an opinion rests, perhaps, on too high an estimation of human stability; and general conclusions are not to be drawn from individual instances of failures, in attempts made probably after the habits and affections were rooted. The more general interchanges of communication between the native Americans, and the whites, have been of a nature little calculated to produce impressions favourable to the improvement of their character as a people. Nevertheless, something has been already effected by time and example. Many tribes cultivate the earth, and they all understand and practise trade.

The avidity of becoming rich is attributed by M. de L. to the Americans of the United States, as their general characteristic. In a country in which so many paths lead to affluence, with flattering prospects of success, an industrious people will naturally be eager in the pursuit.

We must not omit to mention, with peculiar approbation, the management of the prisons at Philadelphia; of which M. de Liancourt has given an account both in a former work and in this: but we are restrained from making extracts, by the length to which we have already extended this article.

In conclusion, to give a general character of this publication, we might say that it contains much which is useful, much that is trivial and unnecessary, and much that is improper. The tone of discontent, which runs through the volumes, is such as might have suited the vestal sisters described by Sterne, who were "unsapp'd by caresses; and unbroken-in-upon by tender salutations." M. de Liancourt's ill-humour was proof against kind salutations and caresses. His sarcasms are bitter, without being witty; and his censures are heavy, without the warmth of virtuous indignation. His complainings are little calculated to excite compassion, and his reprehensions will make few proselytes.—We cannot refrain from observing, also, that on some occasions he has treated the subject of religion with levity; and his morality appears, at times, to be of too accommodating a nature.

If any of our readers should think that we have judged some parts of this performance with severity, we desire that they will recollect how deficient the author has been in charity for others; how unfeelingly, and without provocation, he has taken unwarrantable liberties with private characters; and that it is this that has called from us reprehension, which in some instances has been merited in a greater degree than we should deem ourselves justified in bestowing it. The translator, in his preface, speaks of the author's 'great native rectitude and benignity of disposition:' yet afterward, praising his diligence, he says, 'he (the Duke) tells us all that he could learn, without being restrained even by considerations of personal delicacy, or the secrecy of honour, from making public several things, which, though acceptable to us, were certainly not intended to be thus proclaimed to all Europe, by those who communicated them to him.' These two accounts ill accord with the same character.

The reader has just reason for complaining of the length of this work, though the useful information which it contains is considerable. The Duke has certainly not been an *idle* traveller; and his agricultural remarks will greatly assist the reader in acquiring correct ideas of the country. If he had been as blameless in his communications as he was diligent in his inquiries, we should have found cause only for commendation.

The translator appears to be well acquainted with the American States; and his notes frequently increase the information, and sometimes correct the errors, of the original. He has also added a map 'drawn from the information contained in the work itself, exhibiting in their proper places many new towns and settlements.'

The poet of Shiraz has found in Mr. Hindley, the translator f the present volume, a warm and perhaps a partial admirer. Ve have perused his Divan; and we bear a willing testimony o the true poetic fire which animates many of his compositions. We believe, also, that, from the five hundred and sixty-nine gazels which constitute that celebrated work, perhaps fifty might be selected, as highly polished as any which could be produced from Anacreon, Horace, or Petrarch. It must, however, be granted that the merit of these odes is extremely unequal; and that in many of them we should search in vain for the beauties so highly extolled by Mr. Hindley: who has surpassed, in the fervor of his encomium, the style usually adopted by translators:

'The plain and simple meaning of one of these gazels,' says Mr. H., '(totally laying aside its isocatalectical and symphonious beauties, as well as the excellence of its peculiar concise and metrical construction,) will always please by mere dint of its simplicity and beauty; —as a faithful and correct representation of natural imagery, and as the poetical outlines of a mind cast in a superior mould, and gifted with the most energetic powers of expression: so truly insinuating, so inimitable, and unique, are the compositions of this illustrious poet. Their variety and peculiarity are not less striking; grave and gay, plaintive and sportive, encomiastic and satirical, tender and querulous, simple and dignified, voluptuous and sublime, they adapt themselves to all dispositions, and seldom fail to take a deep hold of the feelings of the human heart. The metre is regular, though varied; the measures are subject to the common rules of scansion, and run in pauses altogether melodious, and heightened by the agreeable returns of corresponding sounds. The style too, is so effulgent and dazzling, yet so finished and concise, that the loss of the most trivial word is the loss of a beauty.'

In another passage, Mr. Hindley remarks that 'there is no work in Persian literature more deserving the attention of the learned, than this work of Hafiz;' and he supports this assertion by observing that it illustrates, in a considerable degree, the manners of a magnificent and intelligent people at a period highly refined and polished, and that the Divan probably contains some of the least corrupt remains of the pure and antient Persian.—In these exaggerated eulogies we do not feel disposed to concur. The Divan certainly contains some fine poems: but that others may be found, of a different description, will be proved by a reference to the fifth gazel of Mr. Hindley's publication. Still less can we admit that these mystic hymns throw any considerable light on the manners of the age.

The volume before us comprehends eleven gazels, with a verse and a prose translation of each. Eight of these had been previously given to the English public, and three now appear

for the first time in an European dress. Those which h
translated by Sir William Jones lose a part of their att
in Mr. Hindley's numbers. We select the first of th
have not hitherto appeared:

‘ Minstrel, tune some novel lay,
Ever jocund, ever gay,
Call for heart-expanding wine,
Ever sparkling, ever fine.

‘ Sit remov'd from prying eyes;
Love the game, the fair thy prize;
Toying snatch the furtive bliss,
Eager look and eager kiss;
Fresh and fresh repeat the *freak*,
Often give and often *take*.

‘ Canst thou feed the hungry soul
Without drinking of the bowl?
Pour out wine; to her 'tis due;
Love commands thee—fill anew;
Drink her health, repeat her name,
Often, often do the same.

‘ Frantic love more frantic grows,
Love admits of no repose;
Haste, then, youth with silver feet,

ODE OF HAFIZ.

I.
Songstress, chaunt thy sweetest lay,
Ever charming, ever gay;
Seek the heart-expanding wine,
Ever generous and divine.

II.
With a nymph like idol fair,
To the secret bower repair,
There imprint the ardent kiss,
Yielding nectar, yielding bliss.

III.
Without endless draughts of wine,
Can the fruits of life be thine?
The mem'ry of her charms invite,
With nectar ever pure and bright.

IV.
Cupbearer, with silver feet!
Give the bowl with wine replete.
Again a copious draught be mine,
Ever luscious and divine.

V.
The maid who stole away my heart
Endless pleasures can impart;
Sweetest odour, fairest hue,
Ever charming, ever new.

VI.
Zephyrs! as ye gently move,
By the mansion of my love,
The tale of Hafiz' woes repeat,
Ever new and ever sweet.

n the ninth gazel, we find the following couplet:

> 'With unborn time the innate fondness rose,
> And shall with deathless time expiring close:'

hich passage, the translator has annexed the following note:

In this gazel, (as well as in gazel 5th, verse 5th,) we find that the nt Persians considered the soul as capable not only of existing rately from the body, but likewise of retaining its love and affec- after the dissolution of the human frame. But, as they main- d that all souls, and the elements of all bodies whatsoever, were ate, co-existent, and co-eternal with the Divinity, the immortal- f the soul must, of course, have been one of their tenets. We endeavoured to express their distinct and two-fold notion of ity, by applying to our word time the epithets unborn and hless.'

n referring to the original for the two passages here in- ted, we find them literally as follows: Gazel 9th, verse " My heart has from eternity been enchained by thy tresses; never shall that chain be broken, nor my vows dissolved."—Gazel 5th, verse 5th. "Though my bones were to decay, still her remembrance would not be obliterated from my heart." From these hyperbolic expressions of the poet, can it be permitted to draw a grave inference respecting the theological tenets of the antient Persians?—but to what antient Persians does Mr. Hindley allude? Hafiz was a zealous Moslem; and there is no question in either passage of the opinions of the Magi:—we are therefore at a loss to apprehend the translator's idea.—The catalogue of gazels, and the various readings, are, we doubt not, very correct: but we should esteem it a strange misapplication of labour to undertake to verify them.

ART. III. *A General View of the Agriculture of the North Riding of Yorkshire.* Drawn up for the Consideration of the Board of Agriculture and internal Improvement. By John Tuke, Land-Surveyor. 8vo. pp. 370, and 15 Plates. 7s. 6d. sewed. Nicol. 1800.

THIS Reporter professes that it has been his particular object to adhere to facts, to avoid theory, to detail every circumstance of the agriculture and husbandry of the Riding which was peculiar to it, and to pass over or but slightly

'The climate of the *coast* is stated to be cold and bleak;—that *Cleveland* is subject to a chill and severe atmosphere;—the *le of York* is cold near the moors, but in other parts mild and mperate; – in *Ryedale*, it is mild and favourable to the produc- n of crops, but not so healthy as it might be if the land were tter drained;—the *Eastern Moorlands*, from their great alti- de, are extremely cold and bleak; little corn is sown, and it will t ripen unless in a good situation and aspect;—and the *West- n Moorlands* are still colder, from being of still superior titude, though the circumstance of their being generally cal- reous is somewhat in their favour. A note is here added, specting the height of these hills, and the greatest elevation which wheat will grow:

> 'The highest of these hills is about 1444 feet above the level of e tide, an altitude which between latitudes 54° and 55° is greatly ore that in which grain of any kind will ripen. I have frequently served on these hills, that where grain is sown at an elevation of out 600 feet, the crop becomes extremely uncertain; that may be koned the greatest height at which wheat will grow, with any nce of repaying the husbandman for his labour, and there the in will prove very light, and about a month later in ripening than own at the foot of the hills; between that and 800 feet may be koned the maximum of elevation for any other grain; between 0 and 800 feet, in backward seasons the produce will be little rth, and sometimes not approach maturity; and in other seasons may be late in October before the ground may be cleared; and quently before that period, heavy showers of snow will have fallen, d sometimes while the crop may be still standing; such showers e people who inhabit the dales of these Moorlands always expect, d in their expectations are rarely deceived, during harvest.'

The general character of the climate of the North Riding, sembling all the countries bordering on the German Ocean, is id, to be that of dryness throughout the year, and of peculiar ldness during the first half of it. No account appears to ve been taken of the quantity of rain which falls. A parti- lar description is given of the soil and surface, and of the neral productions; among the latter, are enumerated in- haustible beds of alum strata, coal, (but not of the best ality.) iron-stone, veins of copper ore, (but not in abundance,) uable lead mines, free-stone, slate-stone, lime-stone, various ds of marble, light red granite, marle, and gypsum.

The section on *Waters* concludes with this remark:

> It is observable, that the Rye, the Rical, Hodge-beck, the ve, the Seven, and Pickering-beck, are all engulphed during ir passage through the narrow range of limestone hills which skirt southern side of the Eastern Moorlands, and again emerge at

their foot on the northern margin of Ryedale, after having been lost for the space of from half a mile to a mile and a half.'

Estates vary in size from 500*l.* to 18,000*l.* per annum, but of this last amount only a single instance occurs. About one third of the land is possessed by yeomanry, whose farms rarely amount to 150*l.* per annum. It is observed, in favour of this district, that the greatest part of the gentlemen of property reside constantly on their estates, occupy considerable tracts of land, and are skilful in its management; 'the good effects of which,' it is added, 'are every where visible in the improvement of agriculture, in the repair of the roads, in the administration of justice, and in the good order, comfort, and general happiness of the people.' After so flattering an account of the North Riding, we were prepared for reading that it boasted of a great number of gentlemen's seats and comfortable farm-houses, but were surprized at the picture exhibited of the general state of the cottages; and still more that one of the annotators to the Report, who signs himself *Cler Ebor.*, should resist the attempts to improve them.

In the chapter on the *Mode of Occupation*, notice is, as usual, taken of the size of farms; and it is observed that a farm of 200*l.* per annum is, for the most part, in higher cultivation than a farm of 1000*l.* yearly rent; which is thus explained. 'When arable farms are very extensive, some of the fields are too distant to be cultivated to advantage. It is often necessary to have more than one set of buildings upon one farm: this is the same thing as several farms in the occupation of one person, whose attention must be divided.'—Good sense is displayed in this remark.

Mr. Tuke bears the most honourable testimony to the general character of the farmers of this district, as sober, industrious, orderly, liberal in their sentiments, and giving to their children a proper education. 'Fortunately, (he remarks,) this country is purely agricultural; and the inhabitants, solely cultivators of the earth, are endowed with the virtues of their profession, uncontaminated by the neighbourhood or vices of manufactures.'

Relative to the distressing subject of *Poor Rates*, the Report is more favourable for the North Riding than for most other parts of the kingdom, in consequence of the general residence of the principal landed proprietors, and the absence of manufactures; yet even here they have obtained a rapid increase, and are deemed to form an evil which is rolling on with the rapid accumulation of a snow-ball.—Convinced of the existence of a radical error in our system of poor laws, and in the prevailing

ns respecting their management, we cannot resist the temp-
tion of laying before the reader some facts which may serve
rectify them:

' It is a circumstance deserving of much attention, *that the three*
rket towns in the hundred were much higher rated than any other parish,
d that the rate of assessment generally increased in proportion to the size
d population of the parish or township; and that the five townships that
d never yet levied a poor-rate, were among the smallest in the hundred;
d also, that the poor were best attended to, and the least numerous in
portion, in the smallest and least populous townships; strong argu-
nts these, against uniting great districts in the general maintenance
the poor, under the plea of their being better attended to, and
intained at less expence.'

In a subsequent section, the policy of granting *Leases* is dis-
sed; and some gentlemen, in the notes to this report, have
ued strongly in favour of holding occupiers of land *tenants*
will, which is the common practice of the district under
rey. Here, indeed, this mode of occupation may not be
advantageous, either to the landlord or the tenant. The
idence of the proprietor being in the vicinity of the tenant,
recourse produces mutual confidence; and a principle is
s formed, which it would be deemed dishonourable for
er party to violate, and which may in many respects have the
d effect of leases, as well as supersede the necessity of them:
, in countries not so circumstanced, the tenant who holds
from year to year can have no security, and cannot be
ected to embark any capital in improvements. We recom-
d the remarks which are here made, however, to the con-
ration of our agricultural readers; and we are sorry that
limits will not suffer us to extract them.

The chapter on *Implements* contains accounts of carts,
ghs, drags, harrows, threshing and winnowing machines,
ing spades, stubble-rakes, and of the *hay-sweep*;—the last is a
ple implement, by which, it is said, hay may be gotten to-
ler, when it is to be stacked in the field, in much less time
n with a carriage. A view of the plate induces us to doubt
fact.

hough, in general, we find little reason for differing from
Tuke, we cannot accede to his observations on the utility
mall inclosures in arable farms. In grazing farms, they
be of use for change of pasture, and for the more
mmodious separation of stock: but, where corn is to be
wn, numerous trees and hedges must be injurious rather
n beneficial. Bleak and cold districts may have their
ate improved by being judiciously belted with plantations:
if the land be purely arable, neither the quantity nor the

quality

quality of the grain will be promoted by numerous subdivisions. In certain situations, we grant that fields may be too large; and this discrimination will be made by the intelligent farmer: but, when fields destined for corn crops are necessarily small, there should be as few trees as possible, and the fences (best when of quick) should be kept low.

We must pass over Mr. Tuke's view of the culture and various kinds of *crops* produced in the North Riding, and shall merely notice a peculiarity which he mentions in the mode of making bread from *meslin*, a mixture of wheat and rye:

> 'Of meslin, the common household or brown bread is made, in families of every rank in the country, and more wholesome and nutritious bread cannot be used; no perceptible flavour or difference arises from the mixture of the rye, and the only effect it has, is to render the bread somewhat more moist, and to preserve it somewhat longer from growing stale; formerly, a very black, heavy, sour bread was made of rye, and is not yet entirely out of date, among the lower orders of the country; it is made in the following manner: a large tub, called a kimlin, is provided; this being only scraped, and not washed out, after each time of using, the paste which remains on the sides becomes sour; in this vessel about one half of the meal intended to be used, is mixed with water in the evening; this is covered up with some dry meal, and lies in sponge till morning; in

It is remarked, in the chapter on *Live Stock*, that the breed of cattle throughout the North Riding is the short-horned, (called the *Tees-water breed*,) except towards the western extremity, where some small long-horned cattle are to be found. In addition to the descriptions, 5 plates are given, representing a Tees-water bull and heifer; a polled Tees-water cow; a Sussex cow; and a half-bred heifer, between the Sussex and North Riding breeds.

The sheep of the old stock are large, coarse-boned, slow feeders, with dry and harsh wool: but an improvement is introducing. A practice is described, of *salving* sheep with a mixture of tar and butter to prevent the scab, to kill the ticks, to render the sheep more capable of bearing the severities of winter, and to promote the growth of the wool. Others, however, adopt a different process.

Yorkshire, particularly this Riding, having been long celebrated for its *Horses*, we must not wholly omit Mr. Tuke's account of this useful species of animals:

'Horses constitute a considerable part of the stock of the high parts of the Western Moorlands; the farmers there, generally keep a few Scotch galloways, which they put to stallions of the country, and produce an hardy and very strong race, in proportion to their size, which are chiefly sold into the manufacturing part of the West Riding and Lancashire, to be employed in ordinary purposes.'—

'The method practised by the farmers, in making up their two-year old colts for sale in autumn, is to give them good grass, and only take them up about a week before the time of sale, in order to reduce their carcase, improve their coats, and teach them to lead; they are usually sold with their full tails, to dealers, who afterwards make them up more according to art. The first business, is to draw their corner teeth, in order to make three and four-year old horses have the mouths of those of five; they also undergo the operations of docking and nicking; and after having been kept for two or three months on mashes made of bran, ground oats, or boiled corn, they are sold to the London dealers, who, it is said, sell those three or four year old horses as if they were five years old; they are then taken into immediate work, either for the coach or saddle; and in a few months, many of them are completely destroyed by this premature and too severe labour.

'This drawing the teeth, is not a fraud practised upon the London dealers; they know the deception, and insist upon its being done by the country dealers. It is requisite to be done some months before the London dealers finally sell them for use, or the tooth which denotes a horse to be five years old, would not be grown; consequently the deception could not have taken place.

'The horses which are sold for the London market, if for the carriage, are chiefly bay geldings, with but little white on their legs and faces: those which have much white, with chesnut, roan, and other unusually coloured horses and mares, generally do not bear an equal price in the London market, but with other slight and undersized horses, are more sought after by foreigners, and eagerly purchased by them for exportation; or are exported by people of this country, who carry them to the foreign markets, and ultimately obtain a price equal to that obtained for those sold at home; by these means, the exportation, contrary to an usually received, but ill-founded opinion, has a strong tendency to reduce the price of those horses which are calculated for the home market; and since as many fillies as colts are naturally bred, and one third of the colts at least, will either have too much white for the home market, or be of some other colour than that which is fashionable at the time, if the breeder had not a market for those, which appear to be two thirds at least of all he unavoidably breeds, he would be compelled to put such a price upon the one third which happened to suit the home market, or variable taste of the moment, as would pay for the other two thirds; which last would either be unsaleable, or fetch very inadequate prices. The consequence naturally flowing from this would be, that the price of horses used at home, would be far greater than at present, when a foreign demand procures to the breeder, nearly as good a price for the horses that would otherwise be useless and unsaleable, as for those which are valued at home.'

The chapter on *Political Economy* includes roads—canals—fairs and markets—commerce—manufactures—and population. On the first of these subjects, several judicious observations are made, for which we cannot find room: but on the last we meet with no satisfactory information that would be worth transcribing.

Mr. Tuke concludes with recommending the removal of all obstacles to agricultural improvement; among which he enumerates—tithes—the non-existence of a general inclosure act—the want of an agreement or understanding between landlord and tenant—a deficiency of farming capitals—monopolies—taxes on salt—the rapid increase of the poor-rates—and undue liberties taken in the pursuit of game.

If we do not subscribe to all of Mr. Tuke's positions, we have not found frequent cause for dissent, but have in general followed him with pleasure through his survey.—A map of the Riding, and other plates, are given with this work.

ART. IV. *Letters from the Rev. Mr. Job Orton, and the Rev. Sir James Stonhouse, Bart. M. D.* to the Rev. Thomas Stedman, M. A. Vicar of St. Chad's, Shrewsbury. sm. 8vo. 2 Vols. 9s. Boards. Longman and Rees, &c. 1800.

POPE says,

" *Unthought of frailties cheat us in the wise;*"

and Warton, in his commentary on this line, (see his Essay on the writings and genius of Pope, vol. ii. p. 186) endeavours to confirm the truth of the poet's assertion, by relating "that LOCKE was fond of romances; that NEWTON once studied astrology; that Dr. CLARKE valued himself on his agility, and frequently amused himself in a private room of his house in leaping over tables and chairs; that POPE was an epicure, and, though accustomed to lie whole days in bed on account of his head-achs, would at any time rise with alacrity, if a dish of stewed lampreys was announced for dinner; and that the Duke of MARLBOROUGH, on the evening of an important battle, was heard chiding his servant for having been so extravagant as to light four candles in his tent, when Prince Eugene came to confer with him." Indeed, persons who are celebrated for valour, talents, wisdom, or virtue, too often betray weaknesses which remind us that they are still but imperfect mortals; and, as it has been remarked that "no General is a hero before his valet de chambre," so it has been thought that no one is uniformly reverenced as a saint by his domestics and intimate friends, whatever impressions the exemplariness of his deportment, conversation, and writings, may make on the world at large. Hence a general wish obtains, of lifting up the veil which conceals from our view the retired life of men who are eminent for their wisdom and piety; and of contemplating them in the privacies of the closet, and in the familiar, unrestrained intercourse of friendship. We are desirous of seeing how far the public exhortations, delivered by the preacher, influence his own conduct; and in what degree the religion, which he recommends to others, elevates, purifies, and expands his own heart. Happy is it when the curtain can be drawn back with advantage to the objects disclosed;—when the private lives of divines are found to correspond with the doctrines which they inculcate, and can be adduced as proofs of the genuineness of their convictions, and the wisdom of their choice.

Exhibitions of this rare and truly gratifying kind are presented in the volumes before us. Of the late Mr. Job Orton, it is impossible to speak without extreme veneration; and Dr. (afterward Sir James) Stonhouse was a sincere, zealous, and faithful divine. We have great pleasure in paying a tribute of respect to the memory of such men; we thank the editor for the valuable addition of the letters of Dr. S. to those of Mr. Orton formerly given to the public *; and we recommend them to the serious perusal of the clergy of every denomination.

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* The first edition of the Letters from Mr. Orton to Mr. Stedman was published some years ago, and noticed in our Review for August, 1791; vol. v. N. S. p. 471.

Yet we do not think that these Christian ministers, with all their goodness of heart and intention, form exact models of imitation; nor can we entirely approve all their sentiments. Mr. Orton had his little peculiarities, and seemed to pride himself in them; and Dr. Stonhouse sometimes discovers a mind fettered by system, and condemns too harshly those opinions which are inconsistent with his own. Both these gentlemen abound also in that excessive *self-degradation*, which does not well accord with a consciousness of virtue, and a purity of intention in the sight of God; and they perhaps pourtray religion with a rigor and formality which neither the example nor the precepts of Christ will completely justify. We perceive, however, unequivocal proofs that they acted on principle, and derived high pleasure and satisfaction from the exercises of piety and Christian benevolence. We are sorry, therefore, when we find that, under the infirmities of nature, as life drew to a conclusion, their religious faith was not always sufficient to conquer the fear of death, and to dissipate all doubts respecting eternity. (See vol. ii. p. 396, and other places.)

The correspondence here published unfolds the sentiments and practice of two divines of opposite persuasions, one belonging to the Establishment, and the other to the Church of Protestant Dissenters; and it may serve to repress all acrimonious contention regarding speculative articles, by demonstrating that the essence of true religion is the same in all communions. Though these good men were of a very serious turn of mind, which displayed itself in their writings, in their discourses, and even in their private letters, they were not enthusiasts, and are not to be classed with those who are denominated Methodists. As Mr. Orton objects (see vol. i. p. 245) to the expression, "*guilty by nature*," which is by some deemed orthodox, since, as he observes, 'guilt is a consciousness of having acted wrong;' so Dr. Stonhouse, wishing to promote correct ideas, and to avoid mistakes, disapproves (see vol. ii. p. 56) a frequent use of the *figurative* language of Scripture; such as the term *new birth*, &c., very judiciouſly observing that 'the *high eastern* figures do not suit *our* climate, how proper soever in the connection they stand, where the Holy Spirit of God has placed them.'

These letters recommend early rising to young ministers, and are throughout calculated to impress on their minds the importance and high responsibility of their profession. The habits of the writers, in retirement, are displayed; and we observe the manner in which they filled up their time, and the methods which they employed to excite themselves to diligence. We find that they kept Diaries; and Dr. S. tells us that he had what he called a *Burning Drawer*, with a large *B* on it, into which he threw all letters and papers *which were to be burnt, without their being read, by his executors at his death.* This is a hint worth recording.—Among the opinions of Dr. S. we were pleased to find him condemning the *voluntaries* which are played in churches that have organs, immediately after the alternate reading of the Psalms. We much approve, also, his remarks in vol. ii. p. 372, 3, on that *indolent and inconsiderate giving of money* which is generally mistaken for charity: 'I don't like, (says he,) giving *money* to the poor, as they lay it out improperly, or to disadvantage: therefore when we pray to be the *instruments* of good to others, or a *blessing* to them, let us be really so, by giving them shoes, stockings, gowns, linen, &c.; by coals or bread; by paying their house-rent; by giving, lending, or recommending books, such as bibles, common prayer books, spelling books, &c.; by putting children to school, and teaching them to write; by talking with children or servants; by seasonable advice; by serious sentences *occasionally* in letters; by religious conversation, when it *can* be introduced, with prayer; by visiting the sick, or sending them a dinner; by paying their apothecary for his attendance and medicines; &c.'

The nature and manner of these letters being peculiar, many local and temporary circumstances occurring, and frequent quotations being introduced, it is not easy to select parts which will be generally acceptable, and fairly illustrative as specimens. We shall, however, extract one or two passages.

Dr. Stonhouse was a very *popular* preacher; his manner in the pulpit being graceful and impressive, and his style of *reading* the church service being peculiarly correct and pleasing:—we speak from personal knowlege. In a letter dated March 17, 1772, he thus remarks on the nature of pulpit-popularity in general, and on his own experience in particular:

> 'You say popularity is a great snare. I have *found* it so; especially the two or three first years after I commenced preacher. I can now *almost* say *in reality*, what Pope only *affected* to say,
>
> "Now sick alike of envy and applause."
>
> ---
>
> "Blest rules of cool prudential age!"
>
> says Dr. Cotton. I have now many thoughts in the pulpit to damp ambition, and the thirst of popular applause. I am failing in my memory, my voice is tremulous, my spirits flag, &c. I have also seen *such changes* in my hearers. How many of my admirers have forsaken me! How often have my most undeserving productions been *extolled*, and my most judicious performances passed *unnoticed!* How few are *judges!* How little good has been done by those discourses I have taken so much pains with, and from which I promised

myself so much! I *once* went into the pulpit sanguine with hope: I *now* go up as an *act of duty* in the sight of God, and because my friends advise me to preach. You must keep a tight rein over yourself, and consider ministers are only instruments, and the blessing is God's. A proper emulation is laudable. Popularity becomes a snare, when we grow proud, conceited, and behave accordingly, attributing all *to self*, unmindful of the grace and blessing of God; and regarding *our own* reputation only, without being desirous of his glory, and the salvation of our fellow-creatures.'

The following passages afford some farther insight into the worthy Doctor's character, and offer good advice to the divine:

'I *fear* Mr. * * will employ his time and zeal in preaching *doctrines, tenets, words,* and *phrases,* and not *solid, consistent* christianity; not the catechism properly explained, and scripture rationally expounded; but a bigotted, narrow system, unintelligible and unprofitable. This I know is called religion; and others who are much wiser and better than themselves, are treated, as having *no* religion *at all,* though, at the same time, all *worldly* men say they have *too much,* are righteous over much, as has often been said of *me* and *others.*— I preached in the Abbey at *Bath* not long ago, where was a young cl———n, who behaved extremely indecent, shewing all imaginable signs of contempt of the preacher. But did this affect *me?* Not *in the least.* As Pope said, when he was abused,

"I wished the man a dinner, and sat still."

Pope knew he could write verses, though *silly* poets abused him. I knew my sermon to be solid, and written in no contemptible style. I therefore looked on the *young man* as a silly being, not worth my anger, tho' an object of my pity. Another clergyman went into ——shire, and not knowing I was acquainted with the family he was visiting, and that a lady there was one of my intimate friends, began abusing *my doctrine.* But the lady soon silenced him. So you see, I go through much *evil report.* But these things do not *move* me, I am going *out* of the world, and am sorry to leave it so wicked, and to see those who should reclaim it, so little likely to do it.

Tu ne *cede* malis, sed contrà *audentior* ito,

is my maxim. If this be to be vile, says *David,* I will be viler still. (*2 Sam* vi. 22.)

'When I am dead and gone, you will probably think of some things I have said to you, which may now seem of little importance, I have often said, and I again repeat it, "We are to do *our duty.*" No matter whether this person or that sneers at either *you* or *me.* It is *my duty* (as minister of *Little-Cheverel*) to supply my parishioners with proper *prayers* for their use *. It is *your duty* to preach to them *faithfully,* as *my* assistant, and as *God's* minister, which you have always done.—*Expect* no thanks from parents for teaching their

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'* He had at this time sent a number of his Book of "Prayers for the use of private persons, families, children, and servants," (price 4d.) to be distributed among his parishioners.'

children their catechism. The single question I ask my heart is—"What is it *my duty* to do?" I answer—"to catechise." I am got *quite indifferent* about *thanks*, *gratitude*, or *popular applause*. I give myself little concern, whether I have eighteen or eighteen hundred hearers (except for *their* sakes). I am to do my *duty*, as rector of *Cheverel*, and lecturer of *All Saints* in *Bristol*. At the day of judgment, it will *not* be asked, "What *number* of hearers had you?" But "were you *faithful?*" "Did you do *your duty?*" I see so little *good* done, and mankind are *so indifferent* about the concerns of religion, and so keen after pleasure and profit, that I am ready to *despair* of doing good. Yet it is *my duty* to exert myself; and I *do* it, and *will* do it. Act on this principle, and set your mind at ease. Nay, it is the *only* principle, which *can* give ease and *true* content. I conclude the subject with this *one* admonition. "Use eagle-eyed prudence, and heart-breaking perseverance." This was my rule as a physician, and shall be so as a divine.'

One of Dr. Stonhouse's letters (xxxvi.) contains some account of himself and family, to which we must refer the inquisitive reader for particulars. He was born on the 9th of July (20th new style) 1716; he set out in life by practising physic at Northampton; imbibed notions of religious scepticism; was converted; afterward took orders, and had the livings of Great nd Little Cheverel, in Wiltshire; was twice married; towards he conclusion of life, the title of Baronet devolved to him by the ath of a relation; and he himself died at Bristol-Wells, Dec. 1795, in the 80th year of his age, and was buried in the same ave with his last wife in the *Wells* chapel; over which, on an gant monument, is an epitaph written by Mrs. Hannah More. The public are obliged to Mr. Stedman for these Letters, l for the judicious notes with which he has enriched them. be known to be esteemed by such men as Orton and Stonse is great praise.

'. V. *Communications respecting the External and Internal Use of trous Acid;* demonstrating its Efficacy in every Form of Venereal scase, and extending its Use to other Complaints: With original :ts, and a preliminary Discourse, by the Editor, Thomas Beds, M.D. 8vo. pp. 125. 4s. sewed. Johnson. 1800.

i are here presented with testimonials, from several respectable medical men, to the efficacy of immersion in a e of nitrous acid with water, in venereal affections; and evidence of the internal action of the acid on the conn, in similar diseases, is also produced,

detail of facts is prefaced by Dr. Beddoes with some observations; which evince, as usual, much acuteness, with considerable severity against his opponents. We hat any undue degree of warmth should have been admitted into a work of this kind, because we never perused a book in which it could be less excusable. The methods of cure pointed out, for the relief of a most formidable disease, are so simple, so incapable of doing mischief, and so manageable by every person of common sense, that, if the results of the cases reported in this volume be verified by general observers, it will be impossible to prevent the application of the nitrous bath, and the nitrous acid, from taking place in preference to the use of mercury, by any exertions of influence or artifice. If, on the other hand, the cure of venereal complaints should still be intrusted to mercury by the faculty, we shall be more disposed to question the merits of the new remedies, than to impeach the candour and integrity of the great body of medical practitioners in this country.—In stating this alternative, we do not mean to detract from the characters of the gentlemen who have recommended the acids as anti-syphilitics. Those who are conversant with the arduous task of observation must be aware, that the most upright and intelligent of mankind may be occasionally misled; and it would conduce greatly towards settling the contested points before us, if all parties would proceed on the plain maxim, that a mere difference in opinion does not imply a moral wrong on the part of any individual.—To these considerations, we would beg leave to add that, when the decision of a disputed point becomes an object of personal importance to any medical writer, however distinmercury too powerfully affects the mouth (they also cure ulcers left by mercury). Some difference, therefore, must necessarily exist in the action of these substances on the mouth, (unless we should ascribe the alledged effects to the local operation of the acids); and it may frequently be observed of similar substances, applied to the living body, that they have some consequences in common, and others not so.'

Dr. Beddoes adds a case of dysentery of two years' standing, in which the external and internal use of a mineral acid effected a cure. In this instance, also, soreness of the mouth was produced.

The evidence from the East Indies commences with a letter from Mr. M'Gregor, surgeon to the 88th regiment; in which he asserts the permanency of the cures produced by nitric acid, and mentions the efficacy of the acidulated bath, in producing soreness of the gums.—This paper is followed by a number of cases, given by Mr. Scott, which shew that the cures performed by the acid have been permanent during a period of seven years.

In the preliminary observations respecting the cases communicated by Dr. Keir, of Bombay, that gentleman introduces the following notice:

'In this climate, I have observed the disease very generally more active, and its progress more rapid towards the secondary stages, than in Europe; and the use of mercury, in any form, uncommonly disagreeable and unpleasant to the natives; the diluted acid, on the contrary, from the frequent desire for diluents, becomes a convenient and an agreeable medicine, and unless in a few cases, where from some peculiarity of constitution the acid excited nausea, I have of late, in my hospital, found the natives give it the preference; to these reasons we may probably attribute the greater degree of success that appears to result from the use of the acid in India, than in cold climates.'

Dr. Keir concludes, from his experience in several cases, that the acid is capable of effecting a permanent cure, in recent syphilitic affections. The mouth was sometimes made sore by it in his patients.

Mr. Steuart, of Bombay, gives an account of seventeen cases of venereal disorders treated with the acid; in some of them, it was taken internally; in others, the bath alone was used. His general statement of the result is thus given:

'Wherever I have used the nitric acid, it has almost uniformly improved the general health, even in the most obstinate cases of confirmed lues, where the constitution has been almost destroyed by disease, and repeated courses of mercury, and where it has failed to produce a cure. I have not found that the acid uniformly inflames the gums, and produces a flow of saliva; but I have often found it do both, whether applied to the skin, or taken into the stomach. The effects of bathing have been in every respect similar to those produced from drinking the acid; and in the two recent cases, when the feet and legs only were bathed, the cure proceeded as rapidly as it generally does, either under the use of mercury, or the internal use of the acid, and certainly more agreeably.

'To conclude: In all the cases of recent infection, in which I have trusted entirely to the use of nitric acid, whether externally or internally applied, I have not as yet met with one instance of relapse; and, in secondary cases, where I have given it what I consider a fair trial, and failed ultimately, I do not now recollect one in which a permanent cure has been established by any other means.'

Six cases are stated by Mr. Boag, in which the acidulated bath was employed with effect: the gums were made sore in some of these instances.—Several other medical gentlemen add their testimony to the same purport, in a summary manner.—These facts have already been laid before the public by Dr. Beddoes: but we now come to a new and interesting part of the publication; a particular relation of the effects of the acid bath, as observed by Dr. Scott in his own person. We shall extract some passages:

'April 27th, 1798.—I bathed to-day in a wooden tub, which contained water acidulated with nitric acid. The bath was made down the œsophagus. This sensation resembles what arises from having chewed an acrid vegetable substance, and is so disagreeable, that if it be not diminished, I shall use the bath no more after this day. I remained to-day in the bath for half an hour: it was so strong as to make my skin smart in many parts.

2d.—My mouth, though not ulcerated, is painful. I am sufficiently satisfied of the powers of this bath, and shall use it no longer. I find my digestion much improved from it, and I am sensible that the liver, unclogged by disease, is performing its functions with uncommon facility.

'It should be observed, that during the days that I bathed, the thermometer in the day-time was commonly from 92 to 96 in the shade, and that I had on my skin a good deal of that excoriation (for it is not an eruption) that we call the prickly heat. This, no doubt, by removing the protection of the cuticle, has made the action of the bath much more rapid than it would otherwise have been.

'June 6th.—For a fortnight after giving over the bath, my mouth continued sore, and the ptyalism at times was considerable. My pulse, which should not have been more than 85 in a minute, was generally as high as 96, and often above 100. I felt at times an unusual languor, and I got considerably thinner. There was an uncommon degree of sensibility about me. I am inclined to attribute several of those effects, in some measure, to the great heat of the weather. At the end of this time I took an opiate for a few nights, when the spitting went away, and my pulse returned to its ordinary state.'

This detail is followed by an account of the exhibition of the acid in several of the country diseases. In the endemic fever, in puerperal fever, (which, Dr. Scott thinks, is chiefly dependent on diseases of the liver at Bombay,) in hepatitis,—acute and chronic,—in dysentery, in ascites, and in asthma, Dr. S. has found it serviceable.

Respecting syphilis, the writer says:

'The result of our experience of late seems to be, that by the bath, or by combining the internal use of the acid with its external application, we succeed in hopeless cases where mercury had failed; in other instances, however, of a similar nature, I have failed by the acid. When the bones are highly diseased, a long time is required to restore them to health, even after the poison of syphilis is neutralized. I think I have observed in some instances, that the immediate relief from pain is not so decided from the acid as from mercury, even where its permanently good effects have been far more considerable.

'In recent cases of syphilis we have been much more successful; I am hardly able in truth to record but very few instances of failure. Some cases have been more troublesome and more tedious than others, but they have given way in the end.

'With respect to the permanency of the cures by the acid, we have reason to think that at least they are not less so than those from mercury; but I make it a practice, even in the recent disease, to affect the mouth by it, or to produce some very evident affection of the system.'

In a case of elephantiasis, the acid bath was of great use.

Several additional cases of the *Ven. Dis.* then follow, transmitted by Mr. M'Gregor, in which success attended the use of the acid.

In a letter from Mr. Hammick, that gentleman says:

> 'I have never received back any one patient whom I discharged as cured by these agents; notwithstanding the ingenious Dr. Trotter, physician to the fleet, in the second volume of his Medicina Nautica*, page 140, mentions, that two or three of my cases had relapsed, and had been reported to him in the fleet; but, after the most diligent enquiry, and strictest scrutiny, I am disposed strongly to believe, that, on this point, the Doctor was misinformed, as the two surgeons to whom he referred me for information on the subject, declared they knew of no such event.'

Mr. Griffith, surgeon of the Suffolk man of war, attests the efficacy of the acid in sea-scurvy; which is confirmed by Mr. Macleod, surgeon of La Forte. Several cases are also stated by Mr. Deane, surgeon to the 86th regiment, in which the acid, internally given, proved a remedy for dysentery.

Such is the general outline of this performance; which will [redacted]

Mr. Ireland remarks in his preface:

'The volume now presented to the world, comes with a stronger laim to attention than the former, as the subjects are chiefly selected rom original pictures and drawings, that have never yet been engraved, and have been executed by, or under the superintendance of rtists eminent in their profession.

'The originals from which these prints have been engraved, are, vith only three exceptions, in the possession of the author, who vill feel himself highly gratified in shewing them to any gentleman vho may be desirous of inspecting them.

'To the politeness of Mrs. Garrick, and that of Abraham Langord, Esq. of Highgate, he is indebted for the temporary use of the hree pictures above alluded to, which are inserted in this volume.

'On some of the subjects here introduced, the editor has been ble to procure but little information, although he has not failed to vail himself of every opportunity to obtain it.

'The length of time since many of the pictures were painted, and he locality of some of the subjects, have rendered all his enquiries unavailing.

'If therefore he has not been able to furnish descriptions adequate to the nature of the subjects, or if he has in a few instances supplied by conjecture, what should have been founded upon real information, he flatters himself that even the attempt to elucidate any part of Hogarth's works, and the difficulties attending it, will, with the candid reader, plead his apology.

'The author has not introduced into this volume any designs of the artist, but what on the highest authority he is enabled to say, are genuine productions, and he therefore flatters himself that they will be considered as a valuable addition to the works of Hogarth already laid before the public.'

Notwithstanding this intimation, we cannot refrain from doubting the genuineness of several of the productions here represented. Mr. Ireland should have made his readers acquainted with the authority on which he formed his opinion, and should not have expected the public to repose unlimited confidence in his assertions. If all the designs contained in this volume proceeded from the pencil of Hogarth, we have no hesitation in declaring that several of them are unworthy of his genius, and differ from any undoubted production of his pencil that we have seen.

The number of plates here introduced is forty-nine, of various subjects, and of very unequal merits, whether we consider the designs or the engravings. The first print is a portrait of this incomparable artist from a bust by Roubilliac, exhibiting a countenance full of humour and animation. The following is Mr. Ireland's account of this plate:

'The annexed engraving is taken from a very valuable bust in terra cota, which the unrivalled skill of his friend Roubilliac had modelled from the life. It was sold amongst the effects of Mr. Hogarth's widow, at her house in Leicester Fields, and came into my possession at the death of Mr. John Hunter, who had purchased it at her sale. They, who are conversant with the specimens of this art, will immediately recognize the excellence of this effort of Roubilliac's hand. There is an expression in the countenance which conveys a most infallible intimation of its prominent and distinguishing character; and in which it is impossible not to trace almost every feature in the mind of the person whom it represents. It requires but little penetration, to discover a sort of satyrical conformation in the whole of the face. It exhibits a more than ordinary portion of sagacity; and a species of sharp and quick-sighted penetration, as it were in the very act of exploring those vices, and hunting out those follies, which in so many fanciful combinations were the perpetual objects of his researches.

‘ This great effort of genius, however, met with a very slender compensation. The whole amount of the recompense received by the artist, being no more than fifteen guineas.

‘ I have introduced, beneath the bust, the figure of Hogarth's dog Trump, modelled by the same artist. It had been jocularly observed by him, that there was a close resemblance betwixt his own countenance and that of this favourite dog, who was his faithful friend, and companion for many years, and for whom he had conceived a greater share of attachment than is usually bestowed on these domestic animals. I make no apology for the introduction of his por-

I have seen, but the owner, I am concerned to say is unwilling to give them copied or in any way to lay them before the public. The remaining three I fear are irretrievably lost. Incomplete however as they are, I flatter myself that in gratifying my own feelings, I am doing justice to the artist in laying before the reader, fac similies of this treasure, that might otherwise, by various contingencies, in the course of time, have been totally with-held from the public eye.'

That our readers may be enabled to judge of the manner in which this work is executed, we shall transcribe the writer's account of a landscape which he attributes (we know not on what authority) to the pencil of Hogarth:

'ROSAMOND'S POND.—This view is taken from a well-painted picture in oil by our artist, and is, I believe, except a landscape I purchased of the late Mrs. Hogarth, and which I have already laid before the public, the only one produced from his pencil.

'It is evident that the model which Hogarth imitated in this branch of the art, was Wotton, a landscape painter of considerable merit in the early part of this century, but whose great fault was a want of discrimination and character in the leafings of his trees, that generally produced a sombrous and gloomy tint, very unpleasing in its effect. In the view before us, however, the scene is well selected. The abbey towers break upon the eye in a very pleasing manner, and the trees are very pleasingly massed. The figures bear very strong and characteristic indications of the artist's humor, and what renders them peculiarly interesting is, that they are memorials of the costume of the times, in which the personages represented in the picture lived.

'The spot where Rosamond's Pond stood, was at the south-west corner of St. James's Park; and it was not filled up till within the last thirty years.

'It appears that our laughter-loving monarch Charles the second had formed a more than common attachment to this spot. He planted an avenue of trees, and built an aviary near it, and from the circumstance of the bird-cages having been suspended on the branches of the trees, the present name which it bears, that of the Bird-cage Walk, was derived. Cibber in his apology for his life, says, "that he has often seen that merry Monarch in the act of feeding his ducks in this pond, and playing with his dogs amidst crouds of spectators; diversions with which the king was peculiarly gratified;" and which he adds "made the common people adore him, and consequently overlook in him, what in a prince of a different temper, they might have been out of humor at."

'It is a curious fact that Charles conferred on Rosamond's Pond, or Duck Island, as it was called, an extraordinary dignity, by erecting it into a government, of which the celebrated M. de St. Evremond was appointed governor, with a considerable salary annexed to the office.

'This retreat was at that period equally celebrated for those assignations of gallantry, to which in large and populous towns, retired pots are so very favorable, as well as for its having been resorted to s the last refuge of despairing lovers, who found in the friendly waters of this pond an asylum from the afflictions that haunted them. It should seem, that it was frequently used for the latter purposes, from a passage in the Country Wife of Wycherly, where Belville and Moody are alluding to this subject:

Belville. Shall I shew the young gentleman Rosamond's Pond?
Moody. You may visit Rosamond's Pond, Sir, if you will, and the bottom of Rosamond's Pond.'

In the miscellaneous articles introduced into this volume, we observe two portraits which are sketched with great spirit, and which we can easily conceive to be strong and faithful likenesses; the one respecting John Dennis the Critic, who attacked the Tragedy of Cato with so much acuteness and asperity; the other delineating Hippesley, the Comedian, in the character of Sir Francis Gripe in Mrs. Centlivre's play of *the Busy Body.* In the account of Mr. Dennis, we find this amusing anecdote:

'Among the various peculiarities of this singular character, he professed to have entertained a most insurmountable antipathy to punning. Nay, so hostile was he to this species of wit, that he has been known to quit the company where puns have been made. There is an anecdote not generally known, which tends further to illustrate his most eccentric character. One night at Button's, Steele was desirous of excluding him from a party which he wished to make, but which he could not conveniently manage. Dennis being at that time message, as he was sure that it was not Mr. Garrick, whom he had often seen, and with whose person he was well acquainted.'

'The story being related by Garrick to Dr. Hawkesworth, the latter gentleman seemed entirely to discredit it, alledging that such a deception was altogether impossible. The Actor immediately laid a wager with the Doctor, that he would practise with success the same piece of humour with him. Accordingly, not long after this conversation, he habited himself in the character of the Farmer, in his Interlude of that title, and put up his horse at a public house on the Hampton road, not long before Hawkesworth passed, on the way to Garrick's house. When the Doctor was gone by, he mounted and overtook him. In the course of their conversation, the Farmer enquired to what house he was going; to which the Doctor answered, to Mr. Garrick's! I know him well, replied his companion, for he is my landlord, and I am going in a day or two to pay him my rent. They parted, and Garrick having changed his dress, received his friend, who was entirely ignorant of the deception. The next morning Garrick put on the same dress; and coming into the parlour, where Hawkesworth was sitting, was immediately recognized by the Doctor, who entered into a conversation with him. At length Garrick revealed himself, and the Doctor confessed that he had lost the wager.'

Among the remaining designs, are four on the subject of a *happy marriage;* in which we discover few vestiges of that genius, that invention, and that knowlege of mankind, which distinguished Hogarth's other productions. He proved his good sense by withholding them from the eye of the public; and he is little indebted to the individual who has brought them forwards. It is hard that the reputation of an artist should suffer from the undistinguishing zeal of his admirers; yet several instances could be adduced in the present day, in which men of genius and of literature have been injured in their fame by the ill-judged efforts of their friends. Hogarth, however, stands on an eminence from which it will be impossible for the united exertions of either friends or enemies to remove him:

> "*Exegit monumentum ære perennius,*
> *Regalique situ pyramidum altius.*"

Though much has been published which he judiciously wished to conceal, and which he probably hoped had been committed to oblivion, he may still exclaim, with as much truth as the great Lyric Poet of the Roman world,

> "*Non omnis moriar, multaque pars mei*
> *Vitabit Libitinam.*"

ART. VII. *Picturesque Views, with an Historical Account, of the Inns of Court, in London and Westminster.* By Samuel Ireland, Author of a Tour through Holland, Brabant, &c. &c. Large 8vo. pp. 260. 2l. 2s. Boards. Egerton, &c. 1800.

As the subject of this volume has never been treated exactly on the same plan, and as the views here selected have not before been presented to public notice, this performance will be esteemed valuable by more readers than merely those who purchase fine books.

The prints introduced are twenty-one in number, very handsomely executed, and all of them giving a faithful representation of the subjects delineated: but we could have wished that, in the descriptions annexed, the author had always mentioned the situation of the particular Inn of Court. Many of our readers, we have no doubt, are ignorant not only of the scite but of the existence of such a place as Lion's Inn, and would naturally apply to Mr. Ireland for information: but he is silent respecting the spot on which this Inn of Court is to be found; and he is equally uncommunicative regarding the situation of Furnival's Inn.

In the account of the Inner Temple, we find the following

To exemplify to our readers the nature of this performance, and of the amusement which they may expect to derive from a perusal of it, we shall select the account of an entertainment given by the Society of Lincoln's Inn to Charles the Second, and his Court.

'In the steward's office is the admission book, from 1671 to 1673, containing the following curious account of a visit paid to Lincoln's Inn, by Charles II. and his court. As it tends to display the hospitality of that period, I have inserted it at length. What adds to the curiosity of this account is, that the king and nobility present entered their names with their own hands; and, if we may judge from the appearance of the writing, many of them, and particularly Killigrew, the jester, were a little *non compos mentis.*

"A narrative of the kings majesties reception and entertainment att Lincolnes Inne, the nyne and twentieth day of February, 1671."

"Sir Francis Goodericke, knight, one of his majesties learned councel att law, and solicitor generall to his royal highnesse the duke of Yorke, being reader of this society of Lincolnes Inn for the Lent reading, in the year 1671, having invited the king, his royal highnesse, and prince Rupert, and diverse of the nobilitie, to dine in Lincolnes Inne hall, on such day of his reading as his majestie should make choice off; his majestie was pleased to appoint Thursday, the 29th of February, 1671. And accordingly that day his majestie, together with his said royal highnesse, and his highnesse prince Rupert, being also attended by the duke of Monmouth, the duke of Richmond, the earles of Manchester, Bath, and Anglesea, the lord viscount Halifax, lord bishop of Ely, lord Newport, lord Henry Howard, and divers others of great qualitie, came to Lincolnes Inne; his majestie made his entrance thro' the garden, att the great gate opening into Chancery Lane, next to Holborne, where Mr. Reader, and the rest of the benchers and associates, waited his coming, and attended his majestie up to the tarras walke, next the field, and soe through the garden; the trumpetts and kettle drums, from the leads over the highest bay window, in the middle of the garden building, sounding all the while. And from the garden, his majestie went to the new councell' chamber; the barristers and students, in their gownes, standing in a rowe on each side, between the garden and the councell chamber; after a little rest, his majestie viewed the chappell, returning agayne to the councell chamber; from thence as soon as his table (being placed upon the ascent att the upper end of the hall, and railed in) was furnished, his majestie was brought into the hall, where his majestie sate under his canopy of state, being served by the reader as server upon his knee, with the towell before he did eat; his royal highnesse sitting att the end of the table, on his right hand, and prince Rupert att the other end. The dukes and lords, and other his majesties attendants of qualitie, after some short tyme of waiting, had leave from his majestie to sitt downe to dinnar, att tables prepared for them on each side of the hall. The reader, and some of the benchers, to witt, Sir Thomas Beverley, master of requests to his majestie, Sir Robert Atkins, knight of the bath,

ath, all the time of his majesties dining, waiting neere his majesties hairs; and four other of the benchers, Mr. Day, Mr. Pedley, Mr. tote, and Mr. Manby, with white staffes, waited as controllers of he hall, to keep good order; and above fifty of the barristers and tudents, the most part of them attending as waiters, and carrying p his majesties meat, which was served upon the knee; the rest of he barristers and students waiting upon the lords att their table. The three courses, wherein were exceeding great plenty and variety f dishes, and after them a most liberal banquett, was served up by he said barristers and students, and delivered by them, upon their knees, att the kings table; the music, consisting of his majesties violins, playing all the tyme of dinnar in the gallery, att the lower end of the hall. Towards the end of dinnar, his majestie, to doe a transcendant honour and grace to this society, and to expresse his most gracious acceptance of their humble duty and affection towards him, was pleased to demand the booke of admittances to be brought to him, and, with his owne hand, entred his royall name therein; most graciously condescending to make himself a member thereof; which high and extraordinary favour was instantly acknowledged by all the members of this society, then attending on his majestie, with all possible joy, and received with the greatest and most humble expressions of gratitude; itt being an example not precedented by any former king of this realme; his royal highnesse and prince Rupert followed this great and highest example; as also the dukes and other lords, who, before his majesties riseing from dinnar, bor-

Lincoln's Inn, waited on his majestie att Whitehall; being conducted to his majesties presence, by the earle of Bath, and gave most humble thanks for that high and transcendant honour, he had beene pleased to vouchsafe to this society; which was graciously received by his majestie, and did the said benchers the honour to kisse his hand."

In his preface, Mr. Ireland disclaims the idea of harbouring personal resentment against any individual. Such a declaration is not easily reconciled with the unjust and illiberal sarcasm which he has cast on Mr. Alderman Boydell:—but, as Mr. Ireland is removed from the reach of human criticism *, we shall remember the words of our great moralist,

> " That English vengeance wars not with the dead."

Art. VIII. *Letters from a Father to his Son*, on various Topics relative to Literature and the Conduct of Life. Vol. II †. Written in the Years 1798 and 1799. By J. Aikin, M. D. 8vo. pp. 341. 5s. Boards. Johnson. 1800.

The introductory letter informs us that this volume was composed under the pressure of an illness which, the author says, ' seems to have sapped all the principles of vigour in his frame.' While it gratifies us to learn that Dr. Aikin's health has since materially improved, it is also with pleasure that we can assure our readers, that this work discovers no marks of mental languor having resulted from corporeal debility. The same just and comprehensive views, the same dispassionate temper, the same manly spirit, and (if we may use the expression) the same lettered good breeding, which distinguished his former lucubrations, equally characterize those now before us. The contents of both volumes, we think, may be considered as essays much resembling those of Addison, and his followers in the same line of writing; and as deserving a place on the same shelves with them, in the library of every judicious parent and preceptor, for the perusal of those who are committed to their charge. They belong to a species of writing which, though it professes less than many other forms of composition, yields perhaps to none in the instruction which may be derived from it; whether treating on morals, on the conduct of life, or on subjects of taste.

To form the character is the most important business of life; and assistance in this arduous task is highly to be prized. Much

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* Mr. Ireland died ' on the day in which the last sheet of this work went to the press.'

† For an account of vol. I. see M. R. vol. xiv. N. S. p. 1.

of this aid may, in our opinion, be obtained from the counsels imparted in the present volume. If our judgment does not deceive us, Dr. Aikin entertains very just conceptions of those qualities which embellish and which constitute the value of the character of man. He equally inculcates that independence of mind without which there is no individuality, and that spirit of rational accommodation without which there would be no social intercourse. He endeavours to render ardent the love of rectitude; well aware that, unless this feeling becomes an early and deeply rooted passion, there is no sure foundation for moral worth: while he ever insists on that moderation, without which all other virtues, graces, and accomplishments, will be deeply alloyed. He ranks knowlege among the necessaries of intellectual life; and he classes a relish for whatever is elegant and refined, among the instincts of cultivated nature.—We shall endeavour to give a cursory view of the general contents of the volume.

Letter II. *On Party*, contains much sound sense and valuable rules on a subject of great difficulty.—The following just distinction sets a trite topic in a new light, and shews that nothing can be more different than those lines of conduct which hitherto have been generally confounded:

i its favour the criterion of perfection. This is, to convince ie reason in the very face of prepossession; to wield at will e passions; to calm the furious and rouse the torpid; in iort, to effect by the mere power of persuasion, all that can : done by brute force or all-subduing gold.'

To the observation here made on poetry, we give our fullest sent:

'From the notion above given of the perfection of poetry, I think will follow as a corollary, that true taste cannot approve any of ose devices for making it easier to the composer which have been tely practised, consisting of loose versification, the absence of rhyme here expected, prosaic simplicity of language, and the like; for, at the real purpose of such liberties is to favour the laziness of the riters, and not to add an agreeable variety to their performances, I 1 well convinced. As poetry is a luxury and not a necessary, its ultiplication is not an object to be studied at the expence of its excellence; and a little of it, of the finest kind and richest flavour, swers its purpose much better than an abundance of ordinary growth.'

At the conclusion of this letter, the author states his hypoesis in these few lines: 'What, then, after these particular quiries, shall we say constitutes the general perfection of riting? I can discover no other universal principle in this se, than that which is applicable to every effort of art—the gree in which it accomplishes the purpose intended.'

Letter V. contains a few *original*, many *sensible*, and some *trite* marks on the subject of *Authority in matters of opinion.* The gument *Con.* is well pleaded: but to the *Pro*, we think, stice is not done. A wise Emperor decreed that, in difficult iestions of law, the side to which the greater number of opions leaned should have force; and that, in case of the numrs being equal, that party should prevail in favour of which as the judgment of Papinian. This deference to Papinian as wrong, if there be no foundation for the authority here introverted:—but who can forbear to pay more respect to the cisions of a dispassionate, judicious, and diligent inquirer, an to those of a hasty, violent, and confident pretender, en before the grounds of them are stated?—We agree with e author in condemning authority, as it is often set up, in atters of taste.

In Let. VI. we have the refutation of a notion which orinated with the late Lord Orford, (Horace Walpole,) and hich obtained very general adoption; namely, that the *arden of Eden*, as described in Paradise Lost, was *the prototype of odern Landscape Gardening.* Dr. A. traces to preceding writers e passages on which this conjecture, so confidently advanced, as so hastily grounded. This letter forms a pleasing and asterly piece of criticism.

Letter VII. *On the Character of Ajax in the Iliad.* In Dr. Aikin's hands, this subject has given birth to some original and just remarks; and the Grecian hero is raised from that inferiority of estimation in which he has commonly been held.

Let. VIII. treats *on Evidence in Matters of Fact.* Dr. Aikin here observes:

> ' Upon some individuals, perhaps almost upon whole nations, the love of fame operates as one of the most forcible of all motives.—It is seldom that one who looks to high honour from a discovery, will be content with exactly the share that belongs to him, and will not use some artifice to make it appear greater than it is. He will not only be tempted to claim a priority in the inventions of another, but to add to his own some fictitious circumstances which may improve their brilliance or solidity. On this account it has happened, that those discoveries which have best stood the test of experimental inquiry, have been made by men, not only cool and cautious in their tempers, but little influenced by the desire of admiration. Our countrymen Newton and Harvey, may serve as examples of this truth; and perhaps the comparative indifference to fame observable in our nation renders our philosophers better authority in matter of fact, than the more vain-glorious, though highly ingenious and active ones, of France and Italy. I wish our veracity was equally proof against the love of money.'

'It should probably be attributed to a remaining grossness of manners at Rome in Cicero's time, the consequence of recent civilization, that his self-love appears under such broad and undisguised features. Had the same delicacy of feeling then prevailed, as we find in modern times, or even in the age of Pliny, his good sense must have restrained him from shocking it by a total want of decorum in displaying his merits.'

As this topic is interesting, and as the student is misled by the splendid work of Dr. Middleton, which is rather an apology for than a life of Cicero, we shall make some additional quotations from the present writer; who, in this as in other instances, deserts the frequented road only in order to move in the right path:

'What a confirmation do the errors of this great man afford of the philosophical maxim, that true wisdom and virtue are inseparable! With intellectual qualities superior to those of most public men in any age, he was perpetually diverted from the path of real policy, as well as of duty, by considerations proceeding from the defects of his original principles of conduct, and the imbecility of his temper.

'Meantime let us be just and candid in our estimate of characters. Cicero lived in a period full of difficulties to one who wished really to serve his country in public life. The ancient constitution of Rome, always unsettled and ill balanced, was now almost reduced to a mere nominal existence; and amid contending parties, all factious and turbulent, ceased to exert any steady authority. Without joining himself to a *party*, a man could acquire no consequence, and without consequence, he could do no good. Cicero chose the side he thought the best, but he was fully sensible of its defects. Perhaps the only public point on which he felt entire conviction, was the necessity of quelling the Catilinarian conspiracy; and in effecting this, his conduct was uniformly great and laudable. To have been the acknowledged saviour of his country on one grand occasion, is a merit and felicity that rarely occurs to an individual. This, too, was the business of his highest elevation, when he had attained the object of which he had so long been in pursuit. It is fair, therefore, to conclude, that had he been born to power, he would have exerted it for the good of mankind; and that even in his most censurable compliances for obtaining it, he secretly resolved to make amends by his use of it. Neither could any thing be more pure and exemplary than his conduct as governor of a province. In this situation, as well as in his consulship, love of praise coincided with duty, and stimulated him to the most beneficial exertions. Suppose him placed in the situation of Pliny, a wealthy heir, trained to letters under an illustrious kinsman, the subject of a government which gave no scope to party politics, seeing a path open to distinction by the easy methods of cultivating polite literature and innoxious eloquence, finally, cherished by a virtuous and indulgent master, and raised to honours which were to be best maintained by copying the benevolent plan of the bestower;—in such circumstances, Cicero, like Pliny, would probably have had only the foible of vanity to counterbalance exalted talents and amiable virtues. He was kind and humane before those were properly Roman qualities. He was a zealous promoter of philosophical studies, while yet they were scarcely naturalized to his country. We may wish, indeed, that his philosophy had been more a principle of action, than a topic for discussion; for it must be acknowledged, that on real emergencies, such as his banishment, and the death of his daughter, it miserably failed him. But with all the systems of philosophy before him, and judgment to choose the most rational, he wanted a *philosophical temper*; and Epicurus, whom he despised so much as a systematist, would as severely have reproved his practical weaknesses, as the rigid Zeno.'

Dr. Aikin institutes a parallel between Cicero and Bacon: but we think that, though the materials of which these great men were composed, and the moulds in which they were cast, might not be unlike; yet the elements and temperature, to which they were severally exposed, were so different as to leave little ground for comparison between them. Cicero appeared on a more propitious theatre; our countryman lived in one of the most slavish periods of our history.—Bacon's ingratitude to the Earl of Essex is here duly noticed; and from that black instance, his inferiority to the Roman in moral worth is justly inferred. We are of the author's opinion that, 'on the whole, the moral and political character of Cicero stands much higher than that of Bacon, who, perhaps, equally surpasses the Roman in his intellectual character.'

This letter does justice to the memory of a great man, the favourite of every scholar, and every person of taste. We should hope that, in all future editions of Middleton's life of the Roman orator, Dr. Aikin's remarks will form an addendum.

Of Let. X. *on the Value of Life*, the following reflections may be taken as a specimen:

'The attachment to life is in no assignable proportion to external circumstances. It is sometimes weak in the young, the wealthy, the vigorous, with numerous sources of enjoyment courting their acceptance; while it is strong in the indigent, old, and valetudinary, to whom existence might be thought a burden. The fact is, that here, as in so many other instances, *mind* is the true measure of man, and it creates to itself its habitual sentiments and affections, with little dependence on the world without. It may, I think, in general be observed, that the greatest lovers of life are persons of a sanguine temperament, engaged in active pursuits, full of projects for futurity, readily attaching themselves to new objects and new acquaintance, and able to convert every occurrence of life into a matter of importance:—on the other hand, the phlegmatic, inactive, dubious, desponding, and indifferent, as soon as the warmth and curiosity of youth are over, frequently become careless about the remainder of life, and rather consent to live on through habit, than feel themselves much interested in the continuance of their existence. They may be sensible that there is a balance of enjoyment in their favour, and that, therefore, on the calculation, their condition is infinitely better than non-existence; but still it is a repetition of the same things, and the prospect of to-morrow adds nothing to the petty pleasures of to-day. If this be a true statement, it would appear that *expectation* is the grand desideratum of life, not more important as a stimulus to action, than as a zest for giving relish to the passing scenes. When a man has outlived expectation, it will generally be found that, independently of the positive fear of death, he has little remaining attachment to life.'—

'It appears to me one of the great evils of the advanced state of society in which we live, that moderate enjoyments are too little valued, and things only of the highest relish will please our pampered and vitiated appetites. Amusement has changed to dissipation, convenience to luxury, elegance to splendour. Ideas of opulence have passed all bounds of modest computation, and the wealth of a province is scarcely enough for the schemes of a London counting-house, "Quos non Oriens, non Occidens satiaverit."

Letter XI. *On the Respect due to our Superiors.* Here the author draws the line with nice discrimination: but it is probable that *all* his readers may not coincide with him in every position. No manly and liberal mind, however, will refuse its assent to these concluding remarks:

'You will perceive, from the tenor of this letter, that I am a real friend to those honorary distinctions which have their basis in utility, and contribute to the maintenance of peace and good order in society; and it is because I am a friend to them, that I hold in light estimation those frivolous or arrogant claims which are their rivals. I wish to see honour paid where honour is due; but I would have the debt fairly established and exactly stated. There are points of respect and deference to which none of the demands of society can justly be construed to extend. To make a sacrifice of moral principle, at the shrine of a superior, will never be justified by a friend of virtue: as little will the liberal mind acquiesce in the blind submission of the understanding, or the resignation of the right of freely uttering an opinion on matters which have been rendered familiar to us by study and education.'

Let. XII. treats *on the Taste for Farming.* Among the manias which late years have witnessed, was that of engaging in agriculture: but it is obvious that this is not an occupation for persons of liberal education and moderate fortunes;—if the point admitted of doubt, the present letter would remove it. In praise of the services which may be and have been rendered to this valuable art by the co-operation of very affluent persons, too much cannot be said; for agriculture may be greatly indebted to wealthy men of cultivated minds:—but only the regularly bred farmer will be benefited by it as a lucrative pursuit.

The incompatibility of an indulgence in a sentimental love of the country, or of picturesque, with the necessary pursuits of agriculture, will appear from the following lively remarks:

'In fact, no two tastes can be more incompatible than that of the genuine farmer and the lover of picturesque. The first, in every thing, follows the *straight line*—in his furrows, drains, hedge-rows, fences, roads, &c.—for this plain reason, that it is *the shortest way between two points*: the second, for no reason equally clear and decisive, abhors and shuns the straight line, and would rather incur serious inconveniences than admit such a feature of deformity into any part of his prospect. The farmer totally disregards the shades and contrasts of colour in his fields, and, provided he establishes a good rotation of crops, is indifferent whether red is bordered by yellow or green. The man of picturesque, on the contrary, cannot endure to look upon square patches of obtrusive unharmonized colouring, which destroy all keeping, and abolish that beautiful degradation of tints which is essential to landscape. A rich crop is to him nothing but a deformity, if composed of an unsightly material, and the sober russet of a wild heath may suit his purpose better than any hue culture can bestow.'——

'Nor will those facts in natural history, or those grand and beautiful phenomena of the elements, which delight the curious speculatist, long give pleasure to the cultivator, who comes too soon to associate his personal advantage or disadvantage with every circumstance, and loses that happy vacancy of mind which disposes it to the admission of easy gratification. Native plants are to him, in general, noxious weeds; birds and insects, depredators on his property. He cannot view the maternal care of nature in providing for the continuance and multiplication of all living creatures, without wishing that the interests of man had been more exclusively consulted in the economy of things. On the approach of the awful storm, which excites such sublime emotions in the breast of the poet, he only exclaims with Virgil's husbandman, "dabit ille ruinas——ruet omnia late!"

"What wide destruction on its coming waits!"

And certainly it is not to him that

" ————e'en winter wild is full of bliss,

when he thinks of the difficulty of supporting his sheep and cattle through a long and rigorous frost, or painfully drags through miry roads to survey his flooded fields and rotting crops.'

Letter XIII., on the stale topics of *History and Biography*, presents us with some original and valuable remarks. In the passage which follows, the author dives deeper into the subject than his usual aim seems to promise:

'From biography may also be learned the fallacy of those analogical conclusions respecting the attributes of the mind, which suppose a necessary co-existence between certain moral and intellectual qualities, according to some hypothetical notions of their constitutional cause. This is a copious source of misrepresentation in the modern philosophical works of fiction, and one, in my opinion, capable of doing much mischief. By confounding the active and passive qualities of mind, they have made the degree in which impressions are received, a test of the energies ready to be exerted. Thus, passion to the verge of madness, sensibility so exquisite as to become disease, and uncontroulable ardour of desire, are painted as the constant concomitants of high intellectual powers, vigour of imagination, and all the nobler virtues of the heart. Hence youth are taught to regard as symptoms of an exalted soul, actions and propensities the most injurious to society and the individual; and to look with scorn upon that sedateness and moderation of character, which the most judicious moralists have accounted the perfection of humanity. But biography not only presents combinations of qualities which baffle *all* speculative reasonings concerning the mental constitution, but, in particular, it contradicts the false analogies above hinted at. In the enumeration of great writers, admirable inventors, active philanthropists, consummate generals, profound politicians,—of all those *master-minds*, in short, who lead the opinions and direct the fate of mankind, I am convinced a majority will be found, whose calm and unruffled tempers allowed an uninterrupted exercise to their intellectual faculties,—who were men of method, order, and regularity, in full possession of themselves, and capable of directing at will the whole force of their minds upon the objects in which they were engaged. On the other hand, characters of violence, caprice, and uncontrouled desire, so properly termed by the Romans *impotentia animi*, are most frequently to be met with among the degenerate possessors of hereditary power, or the unworthy favourites of fortune, raised by some frivolous accomplishments to stations for which nature never designed them. Or if they are found in alliance with genius and elevated sentiment, that genius is usually wasted on unequal and abortive efforts, and that sentiment leads to nothing but vain resolutions and unavailing regrets.

'Those characters in biography are most instructive and animating, in which we see persevering efforts overcoming a crowd of obstacles, and distinguished eminence gradually rising out of moderate beginnings. This is, in fact, the discipline through which some of the greatest names among mankind have passed; and it may be asserted, that none of the original favourites of nature and fortune have attained a superiority so solid and durable, as that acquired by such a course of probation. But it is not from volatile impetuous characters, however active and ardent, that such a steady career in proficiency is to be expected; and that kind of rapid restless genius, which is fired by every splendid prospect, and obtains easy conquests in every new field of exertion, is rather an impediment than a help in the progress to excellence.'

The object of Voltaire's celebrated *Siècle de Louis XIV.* is thus stated:

'The fact seems to be, that under a kind of philosophical form, it was meant to flatter that national vanity which had so long annexed its own glory to the renown of its favourite monarch; and to sustain the declining reputation of Louis XIV. by making him appear as the soul and main spring of a splendid and important period. In reality, so little did the character of Lewis contribute to form this period, that he lived to wear out all those talents which had entered the scene with him; and by consuming without renovation, he left France as much beggared of excellence of every kind, as it was despoiled of power and opulence.'

If the author would be understood to deny that Louis was the soul of the age in which he reigned, we conceive that the idea is not less singular than erroneous. It is not to be denied that this monarch coveted every species of glory, and particularly that of being the patron of talents in every line; and it cannot be said that he wanted either judgment in discriminating, or munificence in rewarding them. If this must be conceded, surely nothing more is wanting to prove that the blaze of the period emanated in a great degree from Louis. The most judicious and dispassionate readers of history have, of late, maintained that the defamers of Louis have not less outstepped the truth than his panegyrists.—With regard to Leo X., we think, Dr. A.'s observations are more applicable.

Letter XIV., *on Openness and Sincerity*, analyzes and exposes the idea inculcated by some modern speculatists, of the virtue and the duty of unreservedly promulgating our opinions on all

e lost in fondness for the wilder and more fanciful parts of
r, is compensated in increased attachment to the more serious
ignified. I would hope, too, that this taste has not merely
me for amusement ; and if I do not deceive myself, I can refer
strong impressions made by poetry, the origin of some of those
ents, which I should not willingly part with. This experi-
think sufficiently justifies me in recommending to my son what
materially contributed to my own happiness.'

Letter XVI. *On the best Mode of encountering the Evils of*
the author instances the following examples of the spirit
r to be shewn under calamity:

orace was sufficiently sensible of the merit of bearing up against
tunes, in the person of Homer's Ulysses, whom he charac-
in true poetical language, as

——adversis rerum immersabilis undis.

Still buoyant 'mid the waves of adverse fate.

ero was not less the *patient*, the *much-enduring man*, on account
s struggle. He did not complain, but he acted. In like
r it is the generous injunction of the Sybil to Æneas,

Tu ne cede malis, sed contra audentior ito
Quâ tua te Fortuna sinet :
Yield not to ills, but push a bolder course
Where Fortune points the way.

g the real characters of antiquity, Aristomenes, the Messenian
seems to have been peculiarly distinguished by this buoyancy
it, this *renitency* of the mind against the pressure of adversity.
ded, defeated, thrown into a dungeon, he still preserved his
and exertions ; and when the foes of his country thought him
last extremity, they suddenly found him more formidable than
The Scottish hero, Wallace, seems closely to have resembled
this respect. Such a disposition of mind is shewn in small
, as well as in great. It is mentioned as a characteristic trait
rles XII. of Sweden, that once after he had sat up all night to
dispatches, his secretary, when they were finished, having
ink instead of sand over the writing, the king very coolly
' then we must begin again ;" and went on as if nothing had
ed. This was worthy of Charles at Bender. I have read of
lar who, in a somewhat similar case, had an opportunity of
ing as much heroism as any king or general in their greatest
—for the emergency was as great to him, as a contest for a
m to them. An accidental fire had destroyed his papers pre-
for publication, the labour of many years. He recommenced
rk that very day. The Romans made it criminal to despair
commonwealth ; and after the greatest disasters, their only
it was how to repair them.'

. XVII. *On the comparative Value of different Studies.* In
cussion of this subject, Dr. Aikin is not inclined to give

a preference to the study of any one branch of knowlege exclusively. He observes:

'It is, doubtless, impossible for a single mind to embrace all the objects here pointed out so as to fathom the depths of human knowledge in each;—to be at the same time the mind of Newton, Locke, Boyle, and Haller: but according to the degree in which a man had imbibed the leading ideas which constituted the intellectual furniture of such minds, I should estimate the value of his attainments; and I should prefer, though not in point of genius, yet with respect to acquisitions, one who combined a tolerably accurate acquaintance with all the branches of knowledge possessed by these, to a complete adept in any one of them. The last mentioned of the above persons, Haller, was scarcely, I believe, surpassed by any man in the variety, and at the same time the solidity, of his physical knowledge. Buffon may be named as one whose general views were as grand, and whose pursuits were planned upon as enlarged a scale, as those of any person whom studies of this class have rendered famous, though he wanted accuracy and solidity in many of the particulars of his speculations. As a criterion of this capaciousness and elevation of understanding, I would suppose a delegate sent from this earth to explore some other world and bring back the most complete and important information concerning it: – the person duly selected for such a mission would, in my idea, possess a title to the superiority in question.'

The last Letter treats *on the Experience of Life*, and concludes in a manner which is worthy of the well-known candor and philosophical spirit of the writer:

'From the tenor of the preceding remarks, you will perceive that I am far from supposing the true experience of life always to accompany length of years. If, therefore, I venture to recommend to your attention the opinions I have advanced in these letters on a variety of important topics, it is with the hope that you will find some reasons for taking them into consideration, besides that of their proceeding from a senior and a father. It is not for me to suggest these; I may, however, be permitted to say, that my life, though not an eventful one, has upon the whole been a favourable mixture of the active and the contemplative; that my connexions with society have been varied and moderately extensive; and that my temper and habits have not indisposed me for making use of the opportunities for observation which have presented themselves. The correction of my prejudices, (for what man is without them?) has long been the most serious occupation of my mind; with what success, I leave others to pronounce. Some will probably think that much prejudice still remains. I will not affirm that it is not so, but would hope that I am still open to conviction, where error should be proved against me. The state of health which has compelled me to quit the scenes of business, has at length fixed me in a quiet and agreeable retreat, friendly to that progress in mental improvement which is still my humble aim. If I may yet be enabled to contribute any thing to the amusement or instruction of my countrymen, particularly the younger part of them, I shall reflect with satisfaction on the measure of life and exertion

assigned

gned me, and feel no further solicitude, but that the termination
he latter may be that of the former.'

It is not necessary for us, in conclusion, to resume our ge-
al remarks on the contents of this work; and we have now
y to observe, in some degree adopting the author's final
timent and expressions, that we shall reflect with satis-
tion on the mental labours which our duty imposes on
whenever the pleasure which we may derive from future
rtions shall equal that which has been afforded us in the
sent instance.

RT. IX. *The Father and Daughter*, a Tale in Prose; with an
Epistle from the Maid of Corinth to her Lover; and other poeti-
cal Pieces. By Mrs. Opie. 12mo. pp. 250. 4s. 6d. Boards.
Longman, &c. 1801.

HE pleasures of melancholy are suited only to minds of
uncommon susceptibility,—to those persons who may be
d to have a sympathetic *taste* for *distress*; and from readers of
s class, the tale of woe now before us will meet with peculiar
ceptance. For ourselves, we own that we have been truly
ected by the perusal of it, since it is replete with interest,
d possesses pathos enough to affect the heart of the most
llous of *critical* readers. Our only consolation, under the
st impression on our feelings, arose from the hope and per-
asion that the story is *not* founded on *Fact*, though the tragic
rt and the catastrophe may be too often exemplified in the
nsequences attending the profligacy of our young men of
rtune and fashion.

Mrs. Opie speaks thus modestly of her production:

'It is not without considerable apprehension that I offer myself
an avowed Author at the bar of public opinion,—and that appre-
nsion is heightened by its being the general custom to give indis-
minately the name of NOVEL to every thing in Prose that comes
the shape of a Story, however simple it be in its construction,
d humble in its pretensions.

'By this means, the following Publication is in danger of being
ed by a standard according to which it was never intended to be
ade, and to be criticised for wanting those merits which it was
ver meant to possess.

'I therefore beg leave to say, in justice to myself, that I know
THE FATHER AND DAUGHTER" is wholly devoid of those at-
mpts at strong character, comic situation, bustle, and variety of
ident, which constitute a NOVEL, and that its highest pretensions
e, to be a SIMPLE, MORAL TALE.'

As this narrative is not well adapted for either abridgment
detail, we shall only add our brief commendation of its moral

tendency, and proceed to take some notice of the poetical pieces which the ingenious authoress has added to the prose part of this publication. The first and most considerable of these small but pleasing productions is 'An Epistle supposed to be addressed by Eudora, the Maid of Corinth, to her Lover, Philemon, informing him of her having traced his shadow on the wall, while he was sleeping, the night before his departure to a foreign country; together with the joyful consequences of this action.' The ARGUMENT is thus given:

'Dibutades, a Potter, of Sicyon, first formed likenesses in clay *, at Corinth, but was indebted to his daughter for the invention. The girl being in love with a young man who was soon going from her into some remote country, traced out the lines of his face from his shadow on the wall by candle-light. Her father, filling up the lines with his clay, formed a bust, and hardened it in the fire with the rest of his earthen ware.'

This accidental discovery, according to the Epistle, brought Dibutades into great fame and fortune. We shall copy a part of Eudora's address, as a sufficient specimen of Mrs. Opie's poetical compositions:

'EUDORA *to* PHILEMON.

'Yes, I must write—applause to me is vain,
Tho' by admiring multitudes bestow'd,
While my proud triumphs still unknown remain

'At that idea, frigid caution fled;
To passion's sway resigning all my soul,
And hurrying back, with timid, trembling tread,
With breath suspended, to thy couch I stole.

'Long time I stood in tender thoughts entranc'd,
Gazing uncheck'd,—a new unwonted bliss—
Now to thy cheek my trembling lips advanc'd,
Nor quite bestow'd nor quite withheld the kiss.

"And must that form delight my eyes no more?"
I softly murmur'd as regret impell'd,
When, lo! with rapture never felt before,
I thy dear shadow on the wall beheld.

'That moment, Love upon his votary smil'd,
My hand his sceptre, and his throne my breast;
He fired the thought which then my grief beguil'd,
And which to future times will make me blest.

'With eager haste I seiz'd a slender wand
Which near the couch a friendly Power had plac'd,
And with a beating heart, a trembling hand,
Along the wall the faithful shadow trac'd.

'O happy moment! how my bosom burn'd
With transport, rich reward for all my pain,
When, tho' thy head in various postures turn'd,
I saw the outline still unchang'd remain!

'But 'midst my rapture as I heard thee sigh,
And half awak'ning speak Eudora's name,
Beheld thee throw thy languid arms on high,
As recollection o'er thy senses came,

'Asham'd to meet thy fond, inquiring eyes,
Asham'd my strong emotion to reveal,
Again I fled—resolv'd my new-found prize
E'en from thy knowlege I'd with care conceal—

'But when I reach'd my home, to Memory's eye
So dear, so precious seem'd the mimic line,
"Hence, hence, reserve!" I cried, "vain scruples, fly!
Philemon's heart shall share the joy of mine!"

'Ah me! that promis'd pleasure Fate denied—
When next we met, thou cam'st to bid farewell!
And I forgot the invention late my pride,
While on thy neck in speechless grief I fell.

'But when, dear youth! thy last farewell I heard,
Nor more my living lover met my view,
Thy lifeless semblance to my mind recurr'd,
And to the prize with breathless speed I flew.

'Then, as Aurora, while o'er sinking night
Her radiant hand assumes a sudden sway,
In one vast urn collecting all her light,
Pours in full stream at once the flood of day,

See the soft magic of her touch impart
Bloom to thy cheek, and lustre to thine eye:
Thus, tho' the orb that gilds the face of night
Is, sages say, a gloomy mass alone,
When Phœbus fills her with his radiant light,
She charms our eyes with splendour not her own.

'But soon new hopes my throbbing bosom sway—
I with quick footsteps to my father press—
Exclaiming, "Haste! the mimic lines survey,
Whose magic po er has sooth'd my fond distress."

'And as he wond' ng gaz'd, I cried, "Thy art
Shall stronger ye Philemon's graces show,
Bid his crisp'd c s upon his forehead part,
And speak the g ndeur of his swelling brow."

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This is not the first ti e that we have introduced the of Mrs. Opie to the ap bation of our readers: see vol. xxxi. N. S. p. 356.

Art. X. *Travels from F ance to Italy, through the Lepontin* or, an Itinerary of the oad from Lyons to Turin, by th of the Pays-de-Vaud, t Vallais, and across the Monts G Bernard, Simplon, and St. Gothard: with typographic historical Descriptions o the principal Places which lie con to the Route; includi Natural History and which are added, Rem Source to the Mediten to his sovereign, he was commanded to attend his Royal Highness through Switzerland, Italy, &c. and then to accompany him to England. From this period, he has been attached to the establishment of the Duke of Gloucester; and during his residence in England, he has published various writings (which we have at different periods noticed in our Review *,) that reflect credit on the discernment of his royal patron, and have respectfully introduced the writer, though a foreigner, to the knowlege of the British public. From all his literary productions, Mr. Beaumont appears to be a great philanthropist, and it is impossible not to esteem him for his goodness of heart: but by critics he is chiefly to be considered as a geological traveller; and our countryman, Sir William Hamilton, is not more enamoured of *burning mountains*, than Mr. Beaumont is delighted by *frozen Alps*. Though, previously to his arrival in England, he published "*Voyage Pittoresque aux Alpes Pennines*," and has since printed his Travels in the *Rhætian*, the *Maritime*, and (now) in the *Lepontine* Alps, he is not tired of the pursuit; nor does he think that he has exhausted the subject: since, as we are informed, he has now been abroad more than four years, in a region of the Alps hitherto imperfectly explored by him †, for the purpose of completing his design of furnishing, by his united publications, *an entire Picture of the Alps*. It has also been announced to us, that Mr. Beaumont has been very indefatigable; and that he is preparing a work far more amusing in its narrative, and even more splendid in its embellishments, than any which he has hitherto offered to the world. We have seen a prospectus, or general view of its contents: but, as our business is to comment on books which are actually before the public, and not to anticipate those which are projected, we must confine ourselves to the pages and plates now submitted to our perusal and notice.

'Encouragement,' says Mr. B. in his advertisement prefixed to the present work, 'stimulates to perseverance;' and he adduces the flattering reception which the English have given to his former volumes, as an apology for presenting a continuation of his Alpine observations. He fears, however, that, as philosophy is not now the fashion, and as 'the noise of war and the hurricanes of political contention have made the Great, in general, inattentive to the sweet and mild invitations which Nature is continually giving to man to study her works,' his book ventures forth at an inauspicious period; and that he might not improperly address it in the words of Martial,

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* See M. R. *N. S.* vol. x. p. 308. (this is the article to which Mr. B. has alluded in his advertisement, and not the Review for *June* 1794, p. 183.) vol. xii. p. 303. vol. xiv. p. 183. and vol. xviii. p. 212.

† The Cottian Alps; which, he tells us in the present work, he was meditating to re-visit.

> " *I, fuge; sed poteras tutior esse domi.*" Lib. i. Epig. 4.

Without undertaking to decide how far this may or may not be the case, or whether Mr. B. has been most patronized as a philosopher or as an artist, we shall proceed to give some account of the travels here recorded.

Mr. Beaumont sets out from Lyons, after having given a brief account of the trade and population of this city before the Revolution, of its public edifices, squares, and quays; which last are from four to five miles in length, and 100 feet in width. He then proceeds to the mountain de Fourviere; to the Pays de Vilbonne; to the romantic village of Cerdon; to the waterfall, lake, and town of Nantua: to the Perte du Rhône; to Ferney; to Geneva; and, skirting the left bank of the Lake, to Versoix, Copet, Nion, Rolle, Lausanne, Vevais, and Villeneuve. Hence he goes to Bex, crosses the Rhône at St. Maurice in the road to Martignie, takes the northern side of the Great St. Bernard, ascends to the Hospice, and descends into the plains of Piedmont; visits St. Remi, Aösta, Chatillon, the generality of his readers would have desired. He takes continual notice of the composition of mountains, of the position of their respective strata, and of the marine substances which may be found in them. Considering the prominent idea which pervades the whole, he has selected the following very apposite motto from Ovid:

> " *Vidi ego quod fuerat quondam solidissima tellus*
> *Esse fretum; vidi factas ex æquore terras:*
> *Et procul a pelago conchæ jacuere marinæ;*
> *Et vetus inventa est in montibus anchora summis.*
> *Quodque fuit campus, vallem decursus aquarum*
> *Fecit; et eluvie mons est deductus in æquor.*" Met. Lib. xv.

That this globe has experienced a series of revolutions, and has sustained the most tremendous convulsions, may be said to be *manifest* to the miner, who pierces deep into its bowels; and to the philosopher, who explores the high peaks and projecting promontories which mountainous regions and the shores of the ocean exhibit. It is equally evident, from the multitude of marine substances every where found, that the present continents, even the most elevated spots of them, were once submarine; and it is very rational to attribute much effect to the operation of water, in endeavouring to account for the present irregularity and position of substances on the earth's surface. We think that Mr. B. is completely justified as far as he erects his theory on this principle: but we do not see any reason for admitting that the incroachments and retreats of the sea have been caused by the poles of the ecliptic and equator successively approaching to and retiring from each other; and we have our doubts respecting the correctness of some of his geological explanations relative to the formation of mountains*, and especially the origin of the lake of Genoa, or lake Leman. We hesitate, also, to subscribe to all his observations on the loss and recovery of the Rhône. It is here remarked that this river descends into its subterraneous passage with great vehemence, and reappears with singular placidity, scarcely discovering any motion except by some trifling bubbles and eddies; and our philosophic traveller would account for this fact by supposing that the form of its channel is that of a syphon, having the leg or end, at the part at which the Rhône re-appears, more vertical than the other leg, at its descent under ground. However true this conjecture may be, it will not of itself explain the fact that none of the substances, which have been thrown by way of experiment into that part of the current which inhumes itself, ever rise on the opposite side. When water sinks and re-ascends, the form of its course must resemble a syphon; and if the channel were unobstructed, pieces of wood, or any other firm substance specifically lighter than the fluid, would descend and ascend with it. We believe, however, that the fact is that rivers, like the Rhône on the Continent and the *Mole* in England, which lose themselves for a short time in the bowels of the earth, are filtrated through porous strata, or layers of pebbles, or fragments of loose rocks; that this filtration takes place to some extent along the bed of the rivers before they are finally lost; and that they recover themselves not all at once, but in a manner similar to their descent.

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* It is more reasonable to imagine that the lofty peaks of the Alps were elevated by an expansive power which convulsed the earth, than to suppose them to be formed by a chrystallizing process under water.

Our difference of opinion with this gentleman, on these topics, does not diminish our respect for his talents; and, having already delineated his route, it is now our office to detail some of the entertainment and instruction which it affords.

Rural scenery and rural life seem to be Mr. Beaumont's delight, and he therefore takes every opportunity of indulging in the description of both. Scarcely has he quitted Lyons, and ascended the mountain *de Fourviere*, when he breaks out into rapturous admiration; and, as he advances to the *Pays de Valbonne*, his pleasures increase :

customary to lay on two or three coatings of quick lime and plaster, with a few handfuls of salt mixed together; but if they were desirous of giving a yellowish or greyish hue to the outside, a small quantity of ochre or burnt straw, reduced to powder, and mixed with water, was then added:"—a simple manner of painting *al fresco*, which not only serves as an admirable deception, but delights the eye.

'The peasantry of this province, being mostly proprictors, each possessing a small piece of land which they can call their own, these *chaumières* are numerous, and are profusely scattered on this wide surface, which extends for miles, sometimes on the edge of a forest, at other times on the side of a meadow, or at the foot of a rivulet: whilst the green turf, variegated with aromatic flowers and the bright tints of aquatic herbs, diversify the scene, and give the whole plain an appearance on which the eye delights to repose.'

In the same style, our traveller soon afterward depicts the romantic little village of Cerdon, through which the road passes:

'Conceive a formidable mountain, now and then rising in a perpendicular direction, sometimes appearing as though shelving over the road, ready to detach pieces from its craggy sides; at other times, a stupendous rock, presenting itself unexpectedly to the view, as if to bar the passage; and now an impetuous torrent, sweeping down the steep its foaming waters, dashing them precipitately from rock to rock, seeming so dispute the pass, and to put a stop to all further progress, while it fills the mind with a mixture of awe and terror.

'But how quick the transition to other sensations! for Nature soon resumes her milder features, and displays an aspect of placid beauty.'

The author notices the manufactories at Nantua for gauzes, taffetas, stockings, nankeen, (an imitation of the Indian,) callicoes, and chintzes; and in passing Ferney he pays a tribute of praise to the beneficence of Voltaire, who raised this village from poverty and misery to an industrious, opulent, and comfortable neighbourhood. We shall pass over the civil history of Geneva, which occupies more space than the reader may expect in a tour of a professed naturalist: but, as its inhabitants are rigid Calvinists, and as various remarks have been lately offered respecting the mode of observing Sunday, it may at least gratify curiosity to learn the manner in which the Genevese pass this day:

'The taste for rural amusements among the Genevese (says Mr. B.) is such, that after public worship on the Sunday, the city becomes as it were deserted, the major part of the inhabitants engaging in various excursions,—some forming parties on the lake; others in parties in carriages, or on horseback, visiting the neighbouring villages; while others take provisions with them, or else depend on the adjacent cottagers for their repast, who receive them with a politeness and civility which go not unrewarded.'

The city gates are kept open an hour longer on Sunday than on other days, in order to allow for the return of these parties.

In the vicinity of Geneva, is a mountain of curious construction, called the Dôle. After having described its figure, and the direction of its strata, Mr. Beaumont delineates the bird's-eye view which its summit presents; and he informs us that it is the custom (but he is unable to explain the origin of the practice) for the young people of both sexes, who reside in the environs, to assemble on its top on the first two Sundays in August, where they amuse themselves with dancing, leaping, wrestling, and other feats of activity; the shepherds who inhabit the Jura supplying them with all kinds of *laitage*, prepared in various ways, besides fruit, cakes, &c. We should gladly extract this account, and the affecting anecdote with which it concludes: but we must reserve some space for the remaining contents of the volume.

Of all the towns in Switzerland, the traveller seems to have been most delighted with *Vevay*. 'This charming spot (he observes) is most enchantingly situated on the banks of the lake (of Geneva): its streets are wide, the houses tolerably well dreary wild, presented themselves around; and they but too forcibly announced, by their languor and wretched appearance, that the region or temperature in which they grew was no longer fit for them. To these succeeded the *rhododendron hirsutum*, and then a short close grass, conspicuous only in that part of the valley where the snow was melted, while moss and lichens were here and there seen in small quantities on the blocks of rocks which surround the road. At last, as I approached the summit, I came to a spot apparently abandoned by Nature. The kind of chaos in which I was, the profound silence that reigned around, interrupted only by the melancholy rumbling of the Drance, which rolls its impetuous waters among tremendous precipices, served to convey sensations of gloom and terror not to be described,—yet at the same time infused such sentiments of wonder and surprize, at the magnitude of the objects, and the singularity of the dreary and terrific scene which spreads itself around for so great a distance, that I became riveted to the spot. Having however reached the top of the Prou (a kind of dale or pasturage, nine hundred and seventy-three toises or 6221¾ English feet above the level of the sea, very nearly filled with fragments of the lateral mountains, where the inhabitants of Orsières and Lides send their sheep to graze during the months of July and August) I perceived, on my left, the spiry summit of Mont Velan, where the snow is perpetual, and the height of which, according to Père Murrith (canon of St. Bernard, a person well known by his literary knowlege, as well as by his extreme tenderness and humanity towards the distressed traveller of the Alps), is one thousand seven-hundred and thirty toises or 11,602 feet and a quarter above the level of the sea. That mountain, which is one of the highest that forms and indeed overhangs, the summit of St. Bernard, serves as a support to the above-mentioned glacier, which communicates with that of Valsorey, and, to credit reports of some chamois hunters accustomed to pursue that animal among the most stupendous peaks of the primitive chain, extends upwards of twenty miles north-north east.'

This picture of frozen sterility is relieved by the detail of an occurrence which happened to the traveller on his first passage of the Great St. Bernard: but this anecdote, though it is well narrated, we must omit. Mr. B. observes of the *Hospice*, on the top of this celebrated mountain, that it is the most elevated *habitation* on the globe. 'Around, all is barrenness and stagnation: it is, however, a spot consecrated to humanity, religion, and hospitality.' He expresses a hope that, whatever changes the religious and political systems of Europe may undergo, the institution on the top of *Mont St. Bernard* will never be abolished.

Elevated as *Mont St. Bernard* is, the altitude of *Mont St. Gothard* must be superior. According to the circumstances discussed by Mr. Beaumont, this mountain appears to be the highest mass of ground on the continent of Europe; and from it the greatest rivers flow in all directions.

> ' The passage of St. Gothard is probably the only mountain in Europe that is formed by the junction of such a number of long chains of spiry peaks piled one above another, to such an astonishing height, or that gives birth to so many rivers and torrents. For if we begin on the south, we shall there find the *Tesino*, which takes its source on the summit of the mountain, and then empties itself into the Lake Majore and the Po. Eastward, are the three sources of the *Rhine*, which empties itself into the German Ocean; northward flows *The Rheuss;* and westward the *Rhône*, which throws itself into the Mediterranean.'

In traversing Switzerland, Mr. B. gives several traits of the virtuous simplicity of manners prevalent among the inhabitants: but he does not profess to detail amusement of the lighter kind.—His work concludes with the following paragraph, which must impress all his readers with a high idea of his manly and amiable character:

> ' Nature has been more my study than men; and I have rather endeavoured to trace the tremendous revolutions of the universe, and to mark their effects, than to enlarge on those things which so frequently take place in civil society. I have not however forgotten my species; their history, as far as it came in my way, I have concisely given, and have with pleasure pourtrayed the happiness of simple and uncorrupted society,—a happiness which, though it does not strike in description, and charm men of dissipated manners, is congenial with our nature, and to the pursuit of which the philosophic philanthropist ardently wishes to awaken mankind.'

This superb publication is enriched by an admirable Chart of places connected with the route, &c. by a plan of Lyons, and by beautiful and well executed *acqua-tinta* views of Lyons—of the Remains of a Roman Aqueduct near Lyons—of the Cascade and Lake of Nantua—Do. taking in the Town and Lake Silan Do. with a Part of the Village of Charris—Loss of the Rhône—Re-appearance of the Rhône—Fort of Cluse—Ferney—Geneva—Versoix—Morges—Lausanne—Vevay—Saltworks at Bex, Canton of Berne—Bridge of St. Maurice on the Rhône—Martignie, and the Valley of the Rhône—Summit of the Great St. Bernard, including the Hospice or Convent—Sion—Source of the Rhône, and Glacier of La Furca—Ascent of St. Gothard—Hospice on St. Gothard—and the Devil's Bridge. We have also a beautiful engraved title-page, with an appropriate vignette; and a plate exhibiting Voltaire's tomb, and the Inside of the Roman Theatre at Lyons.

Mr. Beaumont's performances supply abundant cause for applauding his ingenuity and perseverance as an artist; and we are sorry to add, after having received so much entertainment, that the narrative part of this work is often blemished by verbosity, and by a redundancy of epithets and expletives.

Some allowance, however, is to be made for a foreigner, and for disadvantages under which his publication may be supposed to labour. *Ubi plura nitent*, &c.

Art. XI. *The Siege of Acre.* An Epic Poem. In Six Books. By Mrs. Cowley. 4to. pp. 127. 9s. sewed. Debrett. 1801.

The epopee has ever been considered as the most arduous department of poetry; and so many circumstances must combine to produce its perfection, that we are not to wonder if, among the multitude who have attempted it, very few have succeeded. Without enumerating the essential ingredients of a good epic poem, and stating all the rules which in this undertaking ought to govern the muse, we shall deem it sufficient to observe that it should exhibit a complete action, which has a beginning, a middle, and an end; and without which, a composition has no right to the title of epic, and must disappoint the reader. It is evident, therefore, that much depends on the choice of the subject; and writers are often unfortunate in selecting for "the lofty rhyme" a theme of inadequate dignity and variety. Such, we apprehend, has been the case with Mrs. Cowley. Her patriotic ardor, and her admiration of *the Christian Knight*, have animated her to attempt to bestow on the Siege of Acre a degree of epic consequence which the circumstances attending that event, memorable as it is, do not sufficiently create. She has perhaps effected as much as it was possible to perform; and she has certainly manifested proofs of genius: but, in protracting the subject through six books, a frequent recurrence to the same action is introduced; and the Muse, instead of continuing her progress, oscillates like a pendulum. We cannot but commend the fair author's promptitude in celebrating the heroic actions of her countrymen during the siege of Acre, at which the arms of Bonaparte received so effectual and important a repulse: but we wish that she had not thought it necessary to extend the song to so disproportionate a length.

In some remarks subjoined to the poem, Mrs. C. thus speaks of her own efforts:

'The series of facts which the preceding poem has enumerated, it will have been seen, are faithfully copied from the public letters of the English Officer who conducted the Defence of Acre. The French accounts differed in some points from his, but who could hesitate on which of them to rely? From the latter, nothing has been taken but the names of some of the French Officers who were slain before Acre; and the hint of *one onset*, (the only one they have recorded,) headed by Bonaparte himself.

'With trembling inquietude I venture to place in the hands of the Public, a Poem, on one of the most important passages of a War, which has stretched its hideous form over two thirds of the globe. The subject forced itself to my pen—I could not resist it; and could I have communicated to my pen the glow with which the Siege impressed my imagination, I should have less to fear for the reception of the Poem; but to perceive and to describe are two distinct operations of the mind. Some poet more justly gifted for the task, may perhaps snatch the WAR OF ACRE from my pen, and *adorn* the subject; if so, I at least shall deserve the praise of having called his attention to a task in which he ought to have taken the lead.'

In order that this composition might more completely resemble the epic models, Mrs. Cowley has inserted two episodes:

'If apology (says she) should be necessary for having introduced two Episodes of imagination, in a work meant to be purely historical, this only can be offered—that they grew out of the subject. It may be almost assumed that there never was a Siege which lasted more than two months, in which some interesting *family event* did not take place, in consequence of HUSBANDS and FATHERS becoming Military Men. Eleanor and his Daughters just serve to give an abstract idea, of the relative situation of the Christian towns, in the mountains of Syria. Can it be supposed that Christian Fathers were *not* roused; and that the Females of their families did *not* endeavour to seduce them from their duty, from an acute sense of their personal danger?'

In the commencement of the poem, Mrs. Cowley invokes *Imagination* as well as the *Historic Muse*, and unites affecting re-

he approach of the English fleet is thus related in the third
k:

'Lo! 'midst the toughest struggle of the fight,
Sudden, like Summer streams of midnight light,
When the blue Oceans of the Air infold
Electric flakes, and wave phosphoric gold,
The English Ships return'd towards the Mole,—
Beneath their keels the bending waters roll!
Soon as waked Zephyr had his locks unbound,
And rapid breezes fill'd the Region round,
The Britons caught them in expanded Sails,
And chain'd the vagrant Genius of the gales—
The fate of *Acre* ever in their view,
The gale's most rapid volumes slowly flew!
Her spires at length come forth, her Domes arise,
Her green-roof'd Palm-groves press upon their eyes;
They see th' embattled Plain, the shudd'ring Towers,
The distant space their straining glance devours.
Rough beat the Sea; no anchorage they find,
False the loose bottom, and averse the wind,
Yet still they grandly rode upon the wave,
Shouting aloud, We come! We come to save!
Th' inspiring cry was felt where Leb'non towers,
And CARMEL heard it in her lofty Bowers,
The way of NAZARETH received the sound—
We come, We come to save! its Echoes breathed around.'

the fifth and sixth books, we have the following picture
he conflict between the assailants and the besieged; with
victory which crowned the generous and valiant interposi-
of the English sailors:

'Rowing at distance in the shallow Bay,
The Boats of HASSAN * slowly made their way
Surcharged with Troops. The hour was big with fate,
All might be lost, and he arrive too late!
The Tower half fallen, choaked the subjacent trench,
And made a *sloping pathway* for the French—
The TIGRE'S † CAPTAIN, with commanding Eye,
Sees where the danger, where the hazards lie;
Lands his brave Sailors instant at the Mole,
From either Ship;—both Crews a valiant whole!
A glorious rivalship swell'd ev'ry heart,
Almost without command away they start—
Rush'd through the open Postern, arm'd alike,
Each bearing in his hand a glitt'ring Pike;—
Shouting their thanks, the Syrians round them throng,
And hail them, SAVIOURS, as they pour along;

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* The Turkish Admiral,
† The ship commanded by Sir Sidney Smith.

Prompt, to the shatter'd Tower the English fly—
Their loud huzzas transpierce the wakening sky;
The foe beneath, aghast, astonish'd move,
As the bold Sailors waived their hats above!
Indignant! down they tear THE FLAG OF FRANCE,
And to the Earth the tatter'd rag glance!
'Daring, yet awed, th' Invaders climb the Breach,
And all who come within a Sailor's reach,
Felt the strong purchase of his ready Pike,
Within the breast, or through the Helmet strike:
Nor do the Syrian weighty missiles fail,
With which each rising Hero they assail,
These, and the Pikes sustain an equal part—
That bends the Neck, this penetrates the heart;
They reel, and, tumbling down the slope, impel
The next advancing on the last who fell;
The Plain below continued fresh supplies,
And dread successions steadily arise!
So when deep Seas amidst their Caverns wake,
And boiling billows, billows overtake,
Their curling tops the frothy Monsters throw,
Against some jutting Rock's impending brow,
The Rock, disdaining the presumptuous foam,
Strikes Wave on Wave, and sinks them to their Tomb.'—
'The crowded Towers of ACRE seem'd *all Eye*,
To trace the routed Legions as they fle

Speak to their Children of his air, his voice,
And shew the *Home* diſtinguish'd by his choice!
Thus, when pale Pestilence afflicts the Earth,
And ev'ry breeze gives fresh Distemper birth,
Health's Angel, sent from Heaven, on balmy Wings,
Elastic, through the Empyrean springs,
Her rosy pinions fan the boundless Way,
Touch bordering systems, and o'ertake the day;
Earth's chrystal atmosphere her feet arrest,
Sublime she stands! by gelid airs caress'd.
Thin golden cobwebs the BRIGHT VISION fold,
And purple vapours round her form are roll'd,
Reposed on these 'midst craggy clouds she glides,
And o'er the regions of the tempest rides,
Bends to the Shores which the Destroyer wastes,
And steady through th' infected æther hastes,
On suff'ring nations her blest vial drains,
Supplies new strength, and mitigates their pains:
Her task perform'd, the HEAVEN-SENT darts away,
Bearing to other Realms her healing ray,
And as she quick recedes, a shining train
Of ling'ring, precious lights, will long behind remain!'

n these specimens, the reader will perceive that this ; by no means devoid of poetical merit: but, if some of :s had been altogether omitted, such as,

> 'Not to be rash, and to make certain sure,''

thers had been *touched and retouched*, the acknowleged of Mrs. Cowley would have gifted it with stronger claims astidious critic's unalloyed applause.

II. *Upon the Visitation of Neutral Vessels under Convoy;* n impartial Examination of a Judgment pronounced by nglish Court of Admiralty, the 11th June 1799, in the Case e Swedish Convoy; with some Additions and Corrections. Ar. J. F. W. Schlegel, Doctor and Professor of Law in the ersity of Copenhagen, &c. Translated from the Danish, the Inspection of the Author, by Mr. de Juge, into French, hence into English. 8vo. pp. 187. 4s. sewed. Debrett.

KIII. *Remarks on Mr. Schlegel's Work upon the Visitation of ral Vessels under Convoy.* By Alexander Croke, Esq. LL.D. ocate in Doctors' Commons. 8vo. pp. 157. 4s. sewed. ite, &c.

very able and learned countryman, the present Judge of the ourt of Admiralty, having submitted his celebrated decia the Swedish cause " not only to the examination of his

fellow-citizens, but to that of the citizens of other c
Professor Schlegel has accepted the invitation, an
canted on various points laid down in that judgm
Croke has since come forwards as the vindicator of th
which he practises, and has combated the objectio
Danish Jurist. We shall lay before our readers the
each Advocate respecting the matters in debate, as
himself.

The following account of the Armed Neutrality in
of the reception which the object of it experienced on
tinent, will give considerable insight into the natu
present dispute between Great Britain and the Contin

'The principles which the contracting parties recipro
themselves to observe by this treaty, were, 1st, That the
neutral ship, though enemy's property, cannot be taken, unle
should be laden with a larger quantity of articles contrab
(*contrebande de guerre*) than necessary for its voyage. 2dl
merchandizes should be considered as contraband of war (
de guerre), but such as are directly destined for the use of w
That nothing should be carried into the port or city of one
power while blockaded, or shut so closely by the ships
batteries, of the other nation, that a merchant-vessel co

Politic Law of Europe, that this is a pretension the legality of which is not to be disputed even by those who are most severely affected by the proposed alteration? Is Mr. Schlegel prepared to admit, that if Great Britain, confessedly the greatest Maritime Power in Europe, and two or three other confederate States, were to covenant with each other that the most momentous changes should immediately take place in the Public Law of Europe, that all Europe is bound to respect their authority, and to take the Law as they think fit to dispense it to the world, in consequence of their own separate bargain? Is there nothing of inconvenience and injury in this? nothing of an unwarrantable assumption of supremacy amongst coordinate and independent States, alarming to the repose and liberty of Europe? Surely it can never be maintained that this is a legitimate exercise of power, which is to command the consciences and understandings of the rest of mankind. Can it be matter of reasonable doubt that no such pretension can be maintained without the most offensive aggression against the common liberties of Europe, and that the State which rejects and resists it is entitled to the common gratitude of every other State in it? This would be the case, even if these contracting States had stood firm to their engagements, and had contrived upon the proffered bribe of some occasional advantage to engage the concurrence of some other States of Europe: but, when the fact notoriously is, that this legislative combination of Powers in the northern corner of Europe have abdicated their assumed functions, and that they themselves have since acted, in the conduct of their own wars, upon principles directly the reverse of what their modern agreement purported; who can say that such an agreement, so framed and so abandoned by the very Powers which were parties to it, is entitled to be received with any other feelings than those of derision on the part of other Maritime States, who only hear of it at a distance, but who nevertheless are expected to obey it? For the proof of the assertion that all these three States have notoriously receded from the terms of this Convention in their own practice and public Declarations, I desire, for the purpose of saving unnecessary trouble to my readers and myself, to refer to the Letters of Sulpicius, particularly Letter V. I only beg to observe in what a situation the Public Law of Europe would be if it could be validly altered by the Convention of 1780—That Convention, to all effect abandoned by the very States which were parties to it in the compass of a very few years;—and, after an intervention of several years of a contrary practice on the part of those very States, revived only by a Treaty bearing date the 15th of December 1800, within a few days before or after this Treatise of Mr. Schlegel's was communicated to the world—Will Mr. Schlegel pretend to say that this recent Treaty of Russia, Denmark, and Sweden, binds Great Britain, or any one other State of Europe? If he does not, I call upon him to state, in precise terms, what is the proposition he really means to maintain with respect to the authority of such Conventions?

'Is it a possible thing for three Powers at Peace, by any agreement amongst themselves, to enact that a belligerent Country, no party to that agreement, shall not exercise those rights which belong to it in that character by the General Law of Europe? Is this an act of competent and just legislation, or is it not an act as invalid in its authority as it is injurious in its effects?'

What constitutes contraband in war? Let us hear Professor Schlegel:

'This law—*the neutral flag covers the merchandise*—being become prevalent and general in the last century, it was established at the same time, that no neutral vessel should be laden with merchandises which immediately, and in their present state, might be employed in war; such, for example, as gunpowder, artillery, arms, and other military stores. These are the only merchandises which were at first comprised under the name of *contraband in war* (*contrebande de guerre.*)' —

'It is true, that the English, availing themselves of the preponderance of their marine, to do still greater injury to their enemies, have constantly strove to extend, as far as was possible for them, the denomination of *contraband in war.* They have pretended that we ought to comprise under this name, not only that which is *immediately, and in its present form, for the use of war,* but also that *which is susceptible* of being converted to that use, and which may be equally employed by *peaceable individuals* as by *the belligerent state.* It is thus that *timber for building, masts, cordage, hemp, pitch,* and *tar,* and even *provisions,* are become the objects of their prohibitions.'

Let us now attend to Dr. Croke on the same subject:

'What is to be the extent of the catalogue of Contraband, it is not necessary, nor indeed possible, for me to discuss, it being a subject of vast legal extent and minute detail, connected with Treaties, with History, with Decisions, with Public Declarations and Ordinances of States, and with the varying Usages and Practice of Warfare. Thus much I conceive to be settled upon the best opinions and most received legal practice,—That the direct instruments of war are all contraband and liable to interception; that where Treaties have determined that other goods shall be contraband, those goods become so by virtue of the agreement; and therefore, that to Mr. SCHLEGEL, a subject of Denmark, Hemp, Pitch, Tar, and all Shipbuilding Materials, are contraband, if carried to the enemy of Great Britain—although Mr. SCHLEGEL has been led, by the example of his country, to treat with levity, and even to question the obligation of, an existing Treaty, by which his Sovereign bound himself, and every subject of his crown, to the Kingdom of Great Britain, by his Royal Faith, publicly plighted in the face of Europe, no longer ago than in that very year 1780.—Where no such Treaties interfere, it is certainly the doctrine of the British Admiralty Court, and, may I add, of reason and common sense, that the usages of war must have a great influence in determining upon the contraband nature of different articles, and that the specific catalogue of contraband for the year 1260, would be an imperfect guide for a decision in the year 1801, upon any such matter:—that since the Wars of Europe, and particularly those of its Maritime States, have become principally naval, the materials for the equipment of hostile fleets are liable to be so considered, where not protected by particular Convention, or subjected to that moderated right established in favour of native produce of a forcible preoccupation and preemption. These are their doctrines, and these they think they can maintain, not by authority of Roman Emperors or Pontiffs, (though both their systems of Laws may have deep foundations in the wisdom of man, and may have supplied many excellent rules for the conduct of civilized States) but by appeals to just principles of reason, to the accredited opinions of venerable men, to the acknowledged legal practice of Christian communities, and to the indefeasible rights of natural self-defence; and they think they administer a system of law, so founded, (and it is their conscientious purpose so to administer them) that every practicable tenderness, consistent with these public purposes, shall be shown to the interests and convenience of the individuals who may happen to become the objects of their jurisdiction. It certainly may occur, that, in particular cases, judicial vigilance may slumber, and that some decisions may improvidently escape; but, when this is admitted, (as it undoubtedly must be) what more is admitted, than that these Tribunals are governed by men, and partake of the common infirmities of all human institutions? At the same time let me caution Mr. SCHLEGEL against the eager facility which he has been rash enough to indulge, with respect to the unfounded calumnies, which he has admitted into his book, against the practice of the Court of Admiralty. I need not remind a Professor of Law, that unjust censure loses nothing of its malignity by being directed against Courts of Justice, and that the common interests of mankind require from every person, and particularly from those who are conversant in the business of such places, that the reports of disappointed and disgraced parties should be very cautiously received, and still more cautiously propagated.'

On the question of neutral ships under convoy, Professor S. observes:

'It has been seen, that according to the treaties, the right of visiting vessels not under convoy, extends only to the examination of their papers; and that, if they are regular, the privateers are forbidden to visit the cargo. But as in this case, the belligerent power has not in favour of the legitimacy of those papers, any other warranty than the *public faith* in the name of which they are delivered, would it not be contradictory to admit as sufficient, the declaration of the neutral state, in the case of a vessel *not escorted*; and to regard it as suspected, when, by the presence of the escort, and the testimony of the officer who immediately represents the sovereign, it has acquired the most imposing character of which such acts are susceptible?

'If the accusation, and even the mere suspicion of advancing a falsehood, of committing or favouring a fraud, be serious ins[illegible] between individuals, shall such proceedings be admitted, or without any consequence, from state to state? From this circumstance alone, that two states are at peace, does it not result on the contrary, that for all which is within their respective competence, they ought to acquiesce reciprocally in their declarations, clothed in the form required to render them authentic? To declare publicly, doubts of the truth of such declarations, is to attack the honour, to violate the right of the power from which they emanate. To make these doubts a foundation for violating its jurisdiction with force, is an act of hostility which, though even it should not be followed by war, cannot but leave remembrances both with that power, and all others who find themselves by the act menaced with the same violence.'

Dr. Croke's remarks on this point are as follow:

'The introduction of force amongst parties calling themselves friends, and a force ready to be employed, if a pretension, which is at least known to be disputed, is not immediately submitted to, is as like absolute hostility as any thing can be, that calls itself by the pacific titles of neutrality and friendship. What is to be the consequence? Pufendorf has answered that question in a very few words; "ad manus perventum est, UT SOLET."—The destruction of lives and property is the usual and the necessary consequence; for in truth the whole business is neither more nor less than that of the parties putting themselves in a state of absolute hostility, every time that a cruiser and a convoyed squadron happen to meet. The loss of the lives of innocent persons which took place in the last rencontre between the Danish frigate and Captain Baker is no more than what

doubt, that, if this principle be once established, not a
of the enemy's property on the sea will be left liable to cap-
he commerce of France will be just as secure and prosperous
war as in peace; she need not be ever under the necessity
ying neutral merchantmen; if she will only pay the small
of a neutral convoy duty, her own ships may traverse the
h perfect impunity; for, according to this new doctrine,
has a right to examine them. It is to be remembered,
flag of one State, and of one armed vessel belonging to it,
s good as that of another; in the legal enjoyment of such a
, the magnitude of the State or vessel makes no difference;
of Ragusa, or even St. Marino, placed on a petty chaloupe,
od a legal escort as the proudest banners of Russia or Spain,
over the stern of a first rate man of war. I need not describe
that will unavoidably be made of this; every man's own
n will determine its extent at once. Mr. SCHLEGEL has
d me against any suspicions injurious to the good faith and
of great Governments; I beg to refer him to an anecdote
especting the use that has actually been made of this assumed
one of the greatest Maritime Powers in Europe. In the
56, the celebrated Vice Admiral De Ruyter, after lying
ne in Cadiz, sailed from thence for Amsterdam with several
tmen under his convoy. He was met in the Channel by some
hips of England, then at war with Spain, which insisted
arch; but upon De Ruyter's declaring "that there was not
g in the fleet that belonged to the King of Spain," they
, and parted good friends. Yet, after this solemn declara-
a commander who stands so high in the annals of Maritime
it was afterwards proved, that there was an immense treasure
on board these vessels belonging to the King of Spain

was Spanish property. Captain Pley sent his boats to search them. The Dutch commander at first absolutely refused, and afterwards only permitted a slight search in the Captain's presence. But though notice was given to him of the information that had been received of their being Spanish property, he refused to allow any further search, hoisted the red flag, fired a gun of defiance, and sailed away; and though some of the vessels were taken, all the Spaniards, and the goods and ammunition laden for Spain, arrived safe under protection of the convoy.

'When he has considered these anecdotes, and, to his own satisfaction, got rid of their effects by imputing them to the unenlightened judgments of a preceding generation, (the constant resort of the Writers of the modern school,) I will venture to add the following circumstances, which are notorious in the recent conduct of some of these greatest States in Europe—That during a great part of the present war, Bergen and Christiansand, two ports of Norway, have been the constant, stationary, encouraged haunts of numerous French privateers, which have sailed out from thence to prey upon the British merchantmen trading to and from these very ports, and other ports in the dominions of the same Prince—That in these very ports sat a French Consul, with all the visible insignia of a recognized authority, prepared to give the finishing stroke to these most unnatural captures, by formal sentences of condemnation, pronounced, for the first time that the world ever saw, in a country calling itself and practice of some great States, (though sufficient to show that, notwithstanding loud clamours, Great Britain is much more sinned against than sinning), but merely to illustrate how far the political morality of such States might be depended on in the use of such a privilege, if Great Britain conceded it. I repeat, without meaning either compliment or invective, that from that hour maritime capture is totally abolished.'

From these extracts, the reader will be able to form some idea of the nature of this contest, and of the respective abilities and attainments which are displayed in the progress of it. To those who are desirous of fuller information, we must recommend a perusal of the pamphlets at large. The work of the Danish Professor contains much information that is applicable to the subject on which it treats, but it displays no acuteness, and is very deficient in method; while the production of the English civilian is distinguished by characteristic solidity and precision. The doctrines circulated on the continent are certainly not derived from the law of nations as hitherto received: but those on which Britain acts are to be found in all the writers on this question. Whether it be competent to civilized states, by a majority of suffrages, or in any other way, to reform the code of the laws of nations; to introduce new regulations with respect to the treatment of neutrals; to extend or contract their privileges; and to enlarge or diminish the catalogue of what is denominated *the contraband of war*; are points open to discussion, but which are not properly the subjects of present controversy. It is not here inquired what *ought to be* the law of nations, but what it *has been*, and what it *is*. Those who are versed in the above law, and even those who will take the trouble of perusing this work of Dr. Croke, will have no doubt left in their minds, that the members of the Northern convention first set on foot in 1780, and renewed in 1801, acted beside that right: and that all their proceedings were so many infringements of it. Whether the treatment of neutrals, as at present warranted by that law, be consonant to abstract principles of public right; and whether it be so important to the interests of the British Empire, as it has been deemed; we perhaps entertain some doubts:—but at the same time we must acknowlege that the perusal of Dr. Croke's reply has somewhat diminished them; and we shall not venture to state them, after the anathemas which, in the conclusion of his work, he has hurled against those who, belonging to Great Britain, question any article of the political creed of which he is the champion. Before we perused his work, we had been of opinion that the science of the law of nations, as applicable to maritime war, was very imperfect; that the subject was quite new; and that, till it should be considered very much at length, and regularly digested, the questions which now agitate Europe could not be resolved:—but the advocate of the right of searching neutral ships would lay an embargo on the right of free inquiry into this subject.

ART. XIV. *Mémoire Justicatif de la Conduite de la Grande-Bretagne,* &c. i. e. A Memoir in Justification of the Conduct of Great Britain, in seizing Foreign Ships and Warlike Stores destined for the American Insurgents. 8vo. pp. 106. 3s. 6d. Bickerstaff. 1801.

THIS Memoir shews that the complaints against the conduct of our cruizers, and the proceedings of our Admiralty Courts, are neither new, nor confined to the nations of the north. It is understood to have been the production of Sir James Marriott, who was formerly at the head of the British High Court of Admiralty, and is now introduced by the following

‘ PREFATORY NOTE, *by the Editor*.

‘ This Mémoire Justificatif was printed at the expence of his Majesty's then government: it was never published to be sold, but only circulated by the late Lord Dover, then Sir Joseph Yorke, at the Hague, and to all the maritime neutral courts, with great success liability of the fact of invasion; a *casus fœderis*, which some people insisted did not exist. It should seem as if there is no justice nor reason in the world but the ultimate reason of all sovereign force and power, and that the despotic genius of foreign governments and the avidity of men are to prevail universally, who in truth have no country, and no character: who, not being able to reside under any one constituted authority, fly from place to place, eager if possible to avoid their creditors and better their own situations, although they at the same time scatter flaming torches. Interest perverts the understanding and hearts of men; and for this reason so little is it understood or admitted with what an honourable partiality the British Constitution has marked the bounds of right and wrong in the distribution of public justice, both to foreign subjects as well as to its own.

'This Memoire contains every thing that can be desired to be known concerning the process in a British High Court of Admiralty, of which complaints have been so unjustly made, and which have been listened to too easily.'

These courts of public judicature undoubtedly labour under great difficulties in the administration of justice intrusted to them. In the cases which come before them, the testimony of indifferent parties is scarcely ever attainable; and all their proceedings are founded on a sort of cross examination. The present Memorial details the methods and rules of adjudication followed in the British Court of Admiralty; and no one who reads these pages will think that better could be framed, in order to attain the ends of justice. The application of them, as in all other cases, must depend on the integrity and ability of the judge; and the high degree in which these qualities belong to the gentleman who now fills that situation, in the Admiralty Court of Great Britain, is acknowleged far beyond the limits of the country to which he belongs. Loud and general as the murmurs of neutrals are, the impartial man who reflects on the constitution of our courts, and the characters of those who preside in them, will feel himself obliged to admit that these complaints must, in many instances, be made without foundation. If there be any ground for them which can be removed, we hope that no time will be lost, and that no labour will be spared, to accomplish an improvement which it will be so much for our interest and our honor to effect.

Two publications, by Mr. Ward of the Inner Temple, on the Rights of Neutral Nations, and on Contraband, have lately reached us: but we have not yet had time to peruse them.

Art. XV. *The Works (never before published) of Jeanne-Marie Phlipon Roland*, Wife of the Ex-minister of the Interior; containing her Philosophical and Literary Essays, written previous to her Marriage; her Correspondence, and her Travels. To which are added the Justificative Documents relative to her Imprisonment and Condemnation. The whole preceded by a Preliminary Discourse, interspersed with Notes, illustrative and explanatory, by L. A. Champagneux. Translated from the French. 8vo. pp. 339. 7s. Boards. Johnson. 1800.

The English public, which generously sympathized with and relieved the distresses of the emigrants from France, also admired the talents, acknowleged the virtues, and pitied the sufferings of a strong revolutionary partisan, Madame Roland. Genius is of no country, and of no party; it belongs to the world; and sooner or later it always receives the homage which is due to it. The pens of catholics have often done justice to the elegant mind, the mild temper, and the gentle manners of Melancthon; to the eloquence of Calvin, and to the moderation and integrity of Usher. High churchmen and Tories have been contented to derive no small share of their reputation, from their commentaries on the works of a republican poet; and even Dr. Johnson did not hesitate to admit, in private, that Hobbes was to be ranked among the most correct of English writers, though his puerile bigotry did not permit him, in his Dictionary, to refer to that author's works. We feel no participation in the religious and the political opinions of Madame Roland; and, had she lived longer, we believe that she herself would have qualified and corrected them. We regret, indeed, that she ever interfered with politics; and it would have been much happier for her and for the world, if she had given her attention solely to letters, in which she was singularly qualified for distinction. She had projected the composition of memoirs of her own times, in the manner of Tacitus; and the specimens of that undertaking, which she has bequeathed to us, are very favorable indications of the success which would have attended it.

M. Champagneux has introduced this volume by a preliminary discourse, which contains many interesting particulars respecting the character, the attainments, the life, and the death of his heroine. From this memoir we should have made several extracts, had we not presented our readers with so full an account of this singular female in our reviews of her *Appeals to Posterity*, in the Appendixes to the 17th, 18th, and 19th volumes of the M. Rev. *New Series*. (See also vol. xxiii. p. 112.) We here find an anecdote relative to Brissot, however, which is new to us, and is perhaps not generally known,

. . In a conversation which passed between Madame d and M. Champagneux respecting that unfortunate while he was in prison in the Abbey;—

> le is confident," said she to me; " he sees not that the fury enemies can be glutted only by his blood. He must be ap- of this: it is a cruel attention, I admit; but Brissot, the most apostle of liberty, must not be stabbed in the dark. He has truths to tell his contemporaries, and important lessons to give terity; he must fulfil this task: it will be sweeter to him when nvited to it by me."
>
> ladame Roland soon executed her resolution: she presented p to Brissot in a letter which she read to me, and in which she ned all that is most sublime in philosophy and friendship. It ss not to be able to recover this letter, in order to give it a in this collection.
>
> he exhortation of Madame Roland produced its effect. Brissot some Memoirs, to which he gave the name of his *Testament ue;* those who have read them, consider them as far superior to it had hitherto come from Brissot's pen. Events had tempered e of his imagination, and enlightened his ideas by the torch of and misfortune. This last production, exempt from enthu- and passion, was, on that account, but the stronger in wisdom idgment. Brissot had there pourtrayed the situation of France ours so true and so glowing; he had so completely torn off the from the tyrants who oppressed her, that the downfall of their r became the infallible consequence of its publication.
>
> lready had the work passed the gates of the prison: already s impression ensure a very early appearance, when Robespierre, was informed of it, and who foresaw its terrible effects, con- l to destroy the whole edition, and even the manuscript. Thus abours of the unfortunate Brissot became useless to his own , as well as to the safety of his country.'

he readers of the former memoirs of Madame Roland be curious to learn the fate of her only child, Eudora. The ent introductory discourse informs us that she married one he sons of M. Champagneux, that she lives in tranquil ement in the country, and that she has already become the ner of a family.

has often been remarked that the partiality of friends, the ice of booksellers, and the ill-judged curiosity of the world, frequently occasioned the publication of the manuscripts ninent persons deceased, by which the fame of the authors the interest of letters have suffered. The observation is founded; and though it does not precisely apply in the pre- case, we are not justified in stating that any great merit be- s to the miscellaneous volume before us, as a whole; since chiefly to be valued on account of scattered passages, on h the reader of taste and discernment will dwell with pleasure. We are here brought acquainted with the fair writer in her younger days: but her infant productions, though they furnish the greatest promise, are not exempt from the faults incident to that period. By the side of passages which, in more advanced life, she could not perhaps have exceeded, we find those which impressively proclaim the age of the writer. The story of Dulitot, however, in the paper intitled ‘*The Bandeau of Love*,’ forms a glowing picture, taken from the life. Of the other fugitive pieces, we shall particularize only a few.

At the age of sixteen, Mademoiselle Phlipon (the maiden name of Mad. R.) investigated the abstruse subject of *The Soul*; and the following passage forms a part of her disquisition:

> ‘The fibres of our nerves, distributed as so many small nets, terminate on the one hand on the outside of our members and in the skin, and on the other, they all unite in the brain. When any thing strikes them externally, the impression is communicated to the brain, and according to the different modifications which it experiences, the soul perceives and judges of the object that is the cause of them. But to explain how the soul sees these things, how ideas are formed in it, how a spiritual substance distinct from the body, perceives what passes in another substance, these are things above our efforts, and which probably we can hope to know only in another state; for, to say like Leibnitz, that all this is done according to a harmony pre-

'When the powerful hand of time imprints on us the wrinkles of age, blunts the senses, absorbs the vigour of their mind and body what would be able to charm and dispel the grief of falling into decay? . . . Remembrance and hope; the testimonies of a soul without reproach; the hope of a future state; these are helpful aids which soften the declivity by which we descend to the grave; they embellish the road by the attractions of the prospect, and make us resign ourselves to the arms of death, as quietly as to those of sleep.

'Amiable hope, why should I refuse to enjoy thee!

'In the phlegm of argument, I doubt almost of every thing, I absolutely reject several; but as soon as feeling warms my imagination and dilates my heart, I wish for a God, for a soul, for immortality. The desire I have that they may be, persuades me that they are; I feel the force of the objections that may be made to the contrary, and I would willingly compare it to that gleam of a bright flash of lightning which shews the horizon for a moment, only to replunge it all at once into the most profound darkness.

'The habit of speculations, and the indifference they inspire, very frequently throw my mind again into the scale of doubt, but the habit of the prejudices of infancy has still more power; the obligation of preserving these prejudices to outward appearance, incessantly retraces and renews the deep impressions which they formerly made. I feel myself hurried away towards the general declivity; it is so easy to give credit to that which flatters.

'The idea of an excellent being completes my happiness; I love to think that a beneficent Providence superintends the order of the great machine; I hope to have him for my perpetual witness; I love to believe that he interests himself about human nature, and wills all the good that I desire. Firm in my conduct, uncertainty often agitates my mind; then, without bearing up against it, tranquillized by my intentions, I follow it till something fixes me. It is the flexible reed which, yielding to the efforts of the winds, dreads not their impetuous blast.

'To make our actions compensate for our faith, appears to me a sure mean to avoid regret; if we never reach conviction, we miss not happiness; it always accompanies our sincerity with ourselves, and our docility in listening to sound reason. A man of an upright soul, inclined to scepticism, feels himself bound to an exact and rigid virtue: without the practice of the greatest justice, he would be afraid of having thrown off the yoke only from a culpable desire of giving way to his inclinations without restraint. This severity sometimes brings him back to persuasion: it is so pleasant to believe in a remunerator whose favour we labour to merit!'

Had Madame R. pursued the walk of moral philosophy, it would scarcely have been said that she followed the most able of her predecessors *haud passibus æquis*. She thus concludes her essay *On Liberty*, written in 1778, at the age of 24:

'I leave metaphysical reveries and political speculations to the more able, I prefer what more nearly concerns action, and I think that is my element. I understand by liberty of mind, not only that sound view of an enlightened judgment which is not disturbed by prejudices or by passions, but also that firm and tranquil temper of a strong soul, superior to events. I call it philosophic, because it is the fruit of wisdom and one of its most unequivocal proofs; it is under these titles that I regard it as a treasure. I add, that I am determined to labour to acquire it; nothing is more true or more easy. With reason sufficient to appreciate things at what they are worth, we may suffer ourselves to be affected too warmly by some of them, for want of having contracted the habit of conquering ourselves by courageous and daily exercise. The same vivacity of feeling which on many occasions elevates us above ourselves, often sinks us again below our level, by the frequent revolutions of which it renders us the sport.

'The empire over ourselves is the finest of empires, that of which the conquest costs us most, and the possession of which is the sweetest. We think we have done much when we have familiarized ourselves with austerity, let us speak more correctly, with grief; it seems that it is it which, acting on our organs in the most immediate manner, must principally disturb the liberty of the mind. Yet if it be true that the value which we attach to things makes almost their whole importance, and that the force of ideas and the power of imagination are capable of diverting us from the actual impressions which they make on our senses, it must be acknowledged that physical evils are not the most dangerous for an elevated and delicate soul. It is not precisely in undergoing such and such trials, that our courage is manifested, but it is in supporting the loss of what is dearest to us, and this too is where it generally fails.'——

'Reason, virtue, every thing draws these ties the closer: if cruel necessity chance to break them, what dreadful torments! The disorder of the body is nothing; the rigours of fate scarcely deserve to be mentioned; but in the pains which proceed from the heart or which strike at it, I can do no more than wrap up my head and waste away in silence. O sensibility! delight and torment of our days, how much do thy sacrifices exercise and fatigue our philosophy! It is with the greatest justice that has been established, as the first principle of happiness, that secret enjoyment of virtue, which consists in the recollection of having done well, and in the resolution of continuing to do so; beyond that, every thing is full of illusions and falsehoods, and the sweetest accessories to this first pleasure are crossed by poignant and bitter afflictions. Where is the man who has learned to content himself with this satisfaction and dispense with every other? His felicity is independent and unchangeable: that is the true sage and my hero; he alone can preserve perfect liberty of mind.

'We have so perverted the use of the blessings bestowed on us by nature, that we have reduced ourselves no longer to find, but in their voluntary privation, the peace that ought to accompany them.

'We must love mankind sufficiently to concern ourselves about their welfare, and esteem them so little as not to expect any return on their part.

'Judgment appears to me to consist in discovering that we can accomplish our own happiness only in labouring at that of others; reason seems to me the firm resolution of acting always agreeably to this principle; the highest degree of virtue, is to do good with enthusiasm, because it is honourable and delightful. Sublime delirium, by which the exalted soul finds unheard-of strength, and puts itself on a footing with the gods! Happy he who knows its transports and renders himself worthy of ever enjoying them! Exact calculation and cold reasoning never make us capable of doing so; it belongs to feeling alone to inspire us with them. Reflection sometimes damps the ardour of our efforts, as repose cools courage; in point of morals, as soon as we are certain of having adopted the best, we must follow them blindfold. But it is to the fascination, to the enchantment of virtue alone, that it is allowable to subject the liberty of the mind.'

The descriptions of the excursions made by this extraordinary woman are worthy of her, but they bear evident marks of the haste with which they were written. Her account of England, (which she visited in 1784,) and of its inhabitants, rather errs on the flattering side: but we shall pass over this narrative, as imparting no information to the English reader, and proceed with Madame R. in her visit to Switzerland. This excursion was designed for the benefit of her husband's health; and the fair writer performed it under so many disadvantages, that the observations which she was able to make are only sufficient to convince us, that a finished tour of that enchanting country would have been very acceptable from her pen. We shall extract a few remarkable passages:

'The continual prospect of the Alps has, perhaps, much more influence than is imagined on the character of the people who live in their neighbourhood. A rugged landscape naturally renders the spectator serious; grand scenery awakens attention, and disposes us to reflect; the image of great revolutions and the idea of their return become connected, and revive the remembrance of each other; we feel the weakness of man compared to such effects, and this affection strengthens all the feelings which soften or charm existence. We wish for a Providence of whom we stand in need; we dread every thing that appears to threaten, and we melt at every thing that seems to smile on us. These habitual dispositions must produce melancholy tempers, perhaps incline men's minds to superstition, render their hearts sensible, and make them cherish a domestic life; for a prevailing sentiment attaches us to all that nourishes it, and the imagination, habituated to objects which exalt it, no longer bears to be diverted from them; its wants are confounded with those of the heart, and become equally imperious.' ——

'I now began to take my leave of those majestic Alps, of those secret vallies where I could so much delight to ramble. What cold soul could ever, without emotion, contemplate these sacred spots where the little passions are silent, where the strength of reason and the fire of sentiment approach each other, and become allied from the simple effect of the purity of the elements and the grand spectacle of Nature! How often will my imagination, snatching me away from tiresome or painful scenes, transport me into those retreats, in order to recal the impressions which I have there received, and the charm which they add to every thing good, wise, and happy, that I know in the world!'——

'The contrast between a stay at the foot of the Alps, near the glaciers, and that in the rich and polite house of St. Urbain, is striking, and sensibly felt by travellers.

'On the one hand, it is Nature majestic, harsh, and wild, awful to the senses, inflaming the imagination by sublime pictures, and reviving the remembrance only of truths or analogous sentiments; on the other, it is the sweets and the charms of cultivated understanding, of pure and easy manners, of peaceable life, of comfort and of the fine arts. At *Lauterbrunnen*, an enthusiast of the beauties with which I felt enraptured, I regretted not having it in my power to satiate myself with them at leisure; at *St. Urbain*, the friend of an agreeable society, I should have forgot myself there for several days in hearing sensible conversation and excellent music. Alive to the charms or advantages of very different situations, I have often said to myself, that happiness was less rare than the faculty of enjoying it wherever it exists.'

The writer's powers of contrasting appear in the succeeding paragraphs:

'Adieu to the spouting fountains, well trimmed quickset hedges, verdant pastures, pretty gardens, and their little fences, surrounding ordinary, and to attainments which are rare in her sex, a love of virtue and a benevolence of disposition which are equally distinguishing and laudable.

The translation is very indifferently executed.

Art. XVI. *A Praxis of Logic,* for the Use of Schools. By John Collard. Small 8vo. pp. 251. 5s. Boards. Johnson. 1799.

The author of this work has presented to the world two other publications on the same subject. The first appeared under the assumed name of Dralloc *; and the second † was a new and improved edition of the former. Of the latter, we are here told that it 'received the approbation of many characters celebrated for learning and intelligence;' and, adverting to its title, "*the Essentials of Logic,*" the author thus proceeds to describe the present performance:

'That publication introduced me to a correspondence with some gentlemen of literary eminence, at whose request I was induced to attempt the formation of this Praxis, and to whom I am obliged for many useful hints. The *Essentials of Logic* comprehended the principles of this system at large, compared with the various forms of syllogistical reasoning, including the doctrine of ideas, mode, substance, definition, &c. This piece contains the reduction of those principles to practice, or in other words, a practical application of the theory to familiar language. In this piece, which was written purposely for the use of schools, I have entirely omitted the doctrine of ideas, mode, substance, and definition, because I am convinced that boys should immediately exercise on the praxis, and that that those subjects which depend more on the powers of reflection will be introduced with greater advantage in the practical progress. For the vagrant thoughts of youth, which are for ever making flighty excursions from the consideration of any fixed subject, can never be sufficiently confined in the first instance to contemplate the subtile objects of metaphysical abstraction.—The praxis here offered, is not a theoretical fabric depending on a few unexplained axioms, but a practical system built on the language of the day, not illustrated by fabricated examples, but by the characteristics which language itself has assumed, and needs no other explanation than a distinct exhibition of those characteristics. It may be proper however to remark, that the detail of this system is necessarily so concatinated, that the knowledge of every preceding, is absolutely necessary to the comprehension of almost every subsequent period. Thus, the reader must not expect that he can understand any detached part, without having regularly proceeded from the beginning.'

It is the material and essential office of logic to discriminate between mere words or sounds, and the ideas which are to be conveyed by them. It deals not so much in words, as in *things* and *ideas*, of which language is the vehicle; and we cannot perceive that this book would be of use any farther than as this is its tendency: but certainly this *is* its tendency, though it may prescribe more than is perfectly requisite. It is much to be wished that the juvenile mind should be gently taught to use its faculty of thought and reason, and, if it be possible, to direct it right; which, without doubt, is the design of the present writer. There may be danger that a mere mechanical method either will not inform, or will lead astray. Many youths may have laboured with perplexity and difficulty among *major*, *minor*, *predicate*, &c. who have afterward been very able to reason well, as knowlege and observation increased, and to discover that these terrifying terms were not so formidable nor so significant as their first aspect seemed to indicate.

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* See M. Rev. vol. xx. N. S. p. 206. † Do. vol. xxiii. p. 478,

The work before us bears evident marks of the author's attention and diligence. We believe, as he says, that 'he has spared no pains to render the analysis obvious;' and we think that, when his readers understand the technical phrases, his performance may prove a very useful assistant in comprehending more clearly and fully the sentences and paragraphs which fall under their notice: while it may also enable them to reason and to

Bergholt. The third Edition, with Additions. 8vo. 2s. Printed at Ipswich, and sold by Longman and Co. London.

THE first edition of this pamphlet was published during the scarcity of 1767, when wheat averaged 3l. 4s. 6d. per quarter; and it is mentioned by us in M. R. vol. xxxvi. p. 321. Some judicious observations are now annexed in the form of notes, by Mr. Bransby of Ipswich. It is urged by Mr. Lewis, and reiterated by his annotator, that the system of consolidating several small farms under one occupier tends to diminish population, to increase luxury among the farmers and poverty among their labourers, and on the whole to produce great national injury.

To remedy the unprecedented evils of the present time, Mr. Bransby recommends inclosures, regulations in the circulation of paper currency, a maximum price of grain, and the distribution of estates into small parcels. He allows that difficulties would attend the execution of these plans; and, regarding war as one of the causes of high price, as well as of scarcity, he looks forwards to *Peace* as the best cure of our evils. "When will her dilatory kingdom come?"

Art. 18. *The Appropriation and Inclosure of commonable and intermixed Lands:* with Heads of a Bill for that Purpose: together with Remarks on the Outline of a Bill, by a Committee of the House of Lords, for the same Purpose. By Mr. Marshall. 8vo. pp. 88. 2s. 6d. Nicol. 1801.

When Mr. Marshall's long experience and very extensive knowlege of rural affairs are considered, his thoughts on this subject must be deemed of some value; and when it is known that the contents of the pamphlet before us are the result of some months' close application, by means of which he has 'gained his own confidence, and feels himself on firm ground,' the public will no doubt be solicitous of profiting by his matured and well-arranged reflections.

Mr. M.'s object has been to furnish materials for a general law of appropriation and inclosure, on the principle that 'whatever benefit or proportion of benefit, any claimant has a right to receive while the lands remain unappropriated, or open,—to a similar part or proportion of their value he is entitled under their appropriation or inclosure;' and he has endeavoured, in the various clauses of his proposed bill, to provide for every case that may occur. He does not recommend an indiscriminate appropriation and inclosure of waste lands, but only of such parts as will pay for the expence; well observing that much land is not worth inclosing, especially when divided into small parcels; and that some proprietors have been seriously injured by being *obliged*, in pursuance of some ill framed private bills, to inclose land of this description. He mildly reproves the owners of manors and tithes, for being so much on the alert in searching for "'vantage ground" on the present occasion; and he is of opinion that they should lower their claims, and encourage inclosure, for the purpose of promoting the extention of agriculture in this island: which has no reason for boasting of its prosperity, till it can completely feed itself, and throw off its dependance on foreign countries for the staff of life.

EDUCATION.

Art. 19. *The Youth's infallible Instructor;* for the Use of Schools, comprising in seven Parts, the different Degrees of Literature necessary to complete an English Scholar. By W. Card, Schoolmaster and Mathematical Professor at Hythe. 12mo. 4 Vols. 6s. 6d. bound. Lee and Hurst, &c.

The first of these volumes is called the *Moral Speaker*, and resembles numerous other publications which have issued from the press. The selection, in prose and verse, is on the whole suitable and proper: but the names of authors are often omitted. In the catechetical exercises at the close, we might object to the definition of religion, (*religion is that which binds*,) although agreeing with the Latin word; Dr. Johnson's Dictionary, if the writer went no farther, might have helped him to a better explanation. We might also except against some accounts of the different divisions in the Christian church:—how can it be said, as at p. 142, that the Church of England 'denies election and predestination?' or how, as in a note, p. 143, that the "Baptists are divided into three classes, viz. *General*, *Particular*, and *Pædo-baptists*?" This betrays ignorance, or inattention.

Vol. II. commences with a spelling-book, containing 1120 lessons of six words each, which the scholar is to learn in course; and, by the assistance of a Dictionary, to discover the parts of speech to which they belong, their meaning, &c. A grammar is added, relative to letters, syllables, stops, marks, abbreviations, &c. &c. in which we the youthful attention to subjects of morality and religion; and at the same time we apprehend that his own remark is just, when he says in the preface,—'I believe in these conversations, the sprightliest turns cannot be charged with levity, nor the most solemn with dulness.'—We hesitated at first concerning the dialogue which concludes the volume, relative to Christianity, and to those doctrinal mazes in which so many have bewildered themselves and others, as we doubted whether it would be quite proper for such early discussion: but, on re-consideration, we consider it as sensible, useful, and pertinent.

In some parts of this performance, passages are judiciously selected from the sacred writings, which can hardly fail of attracting regard, and contributing to pleasure and improvement. In these selections, we have remarked a few variations from the translation of the Scriptures in common use, which indicate a critical attention to and knowlege of the subject.

Art. 21. *Natural History, for the Use of Schools;* founded on the Linnæan Arrangement of Animals; with popular Descriptions in the Manner of Goldsmith and Buffon; illustrated by forty-six Copper-plates, representing one hundred and fifty of the most curious Objects. By William Mavor, LL.D. &c. 8vo. pp. 392. 4s. 6d. bound. Phillips. 1800.

This assiduous compiler here extends his useful labours in a new line. The authors to whom he has principally resorted are mentioned above: among these, Goldsmith is too well known to be defective in natural history *: but Buffon ranks high in the class; he is original, scientific, inquisitive, industrious, and exact, except when he resigns himself to the excentricities and vivacities of a brilliant and deceptive fancy; and perhaps, as Dr. Mavor remarks when complaining of his want of method, it may be said that 'his labours, as a whole, exhibit rather a beautiful chaos, than a well-executed structure.'

Dr. M. gives a brief analysis of different schemes formed by those who have been most eminent in this branch of science, among whom Pennant is distinguished: but the Linnéan arrangement, as improved under the care of Professor Gmelin, is chosen for his guide in the present collection and abridgment. He expresses his wish that, for the sake of science, Mr. Pennant had been less frequent in his deviations from Linné; and, since it is desirable that, to prevent confusion, one system should be preferred and followed, it may be best to select that which is recommended by so great a name. The volume thus composed is entertaining and instructive, calculated at once to gain the attention of youthful minds and to improve them.

Among the astonishing varieties which stock the sea, the air, and the earth, none seem more naturally and agreeably to attract our notice than the feathered race; and their peculiarities, instincts, habits, &c. afford much room for speculation and amusement. Of some it is said, and no doubt with truth, that they are very injurious to man, by depredations on his property: yet instances have been observed, in which these supposed hostilities have on the contrary been friendly to his interest, by destroying what might otherwise have proved highly noxious to the fruits of the earth.—The little Wren has been stigmatized as pernicious, in plucking the fruit-buds, while the beautiful but saucy Bull-finch has escaped censure; yet we have been somewhere told that the former merely picks up the worm by means of which the rising germ would have perished, while the latter totally eradicates and flies off with the whole. Even as matters of *curiosity*, it might be agreeable to have accounts of this nature clearly ascertained; and, as points of *justice*, they ought to be decided.—The Goat-sucker, falsely so called, here receives the name of the *Churn-Owl*; and notice is taken of its loudest notes resembling the noise of a large spinning-wheel: of which Mr. Polwhele *, in his History of Devonshire, farther remarks that they give a very sensible vibration to any little building on which the bird chances to place itself.—Under the article Sturgeon, we do not find it recorded that this fish supplies isinglass, which later writers have mentioned, particularly Mr. Tooke, in his account of Russia and the Caspian sea.—We have not room for farther observations, and can only repeat our approbation of this performance.

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* See M. Rev. for April, 1775, vol. lii. p. 310.

Art. 22. *The Grammatical Play thing;* or Winter Evening's Recreation for Young Ladies from four to twelve Years old. By Mrs. Eves, Crescent School, Birmingham. 8vo. pp. 65. with a Box of Counters, &c. 6s. Marshall, Seeley, &c.

Sanctioned by the opinion of Mr. Locke, and others, that learning in course deprives us of the pleasure of enlarging on its contents in a work which is addressed to general readers. The thanks, however, of a liberal and enlightened profession, for the assistance which they will derive from Mr. Roberts's labours on a difficult and abstruse topic, will be an adequate compensation for the diligence, the sagacity, and the judgment which he has exercised on this occasion.

The author is aware that 'his choice has not afforded him the pleasure of expatiation in a province decorated and systematized by learning and ability. It is new and adventurous, and points to a path of enquiry, in which there are few guides to direct diligence, and but little precision to assure the judgment. It is upon the difficulty, therefore, of his subject, that the writer founds his claim to the benignity of the profession.—He has felt the impossibility of extracting pure science and perfect system from the opinions of great men pronounced at distant periods, under the influence of the different modes of thinking, which social and political changes produce, and obscured by the very imperfect manner in which it has been often their lot to be reported. It has been his endeavour, therefore, first, to vindicate in himself the right of free examination, by displaying the contradictoriness of great opinions, and then from the reasonings and data which those opinions furnish, compared with the general maxims of our common law, to draw out a result which might connect in correspondence and consistency the greater and more venerable part of our legal authorities.'

Such is the plan which has been pursued by Mr. Roberts in the present volume. In his preface, he has introduced the case of *Nunn* against *Wilsmore*, B. R. E. 40 Geo. 3. reported in the eighth volume of the Term Reports; because the opinion of the Lord Chief Justice delivered in that proceeding embraces a very considerable number of the points discussed in this performance.

We gladly receive the following information from the preface, in which 'the writer ventures to announce his intention of prosecuting his investigations through all the branches of his subject, which have yet escaped the zealous researches of methodical industry; among which he proposes to include an arrangement of the decisions upon the law of *fraudulent devises*, and the *great statute of frauds and perjuries*. Whether or not he shall persevere in what he has with great timidity begun, must depend upon the credit his present work may find with the profession.'

These subjects are very important, and a judicious treatise on them would confer an essential obligation on the public. Mr. Roberts has shewn, in the present volume, that he has talents and professional knowlege sufficient for the undertaking, and we trust that he will meet with adequate encouragement.

Art. 24. *A practical Treatise upon the Law of Annuities;* wherein the different Securities for Annuities, and the Remedies for the Recovery thereof are fully exemplified. Together with the Determinations of the Courts on the Construction of the Annuity Act. To which is added a large Collection of Precedents, drawn and accurately settled in the Course of Practice, and adapted to every Species of Property that can be made an effectual Security for an Annuity; with Memorials thereof, whereby the same may be prepared with Ease, Precision, and Dispatch. By Robert Withy of Craven-street, Solicitor. 8vo. pp. 550. 10s. 6d. Boards. Butterworth. 1800.

Few statutes have ever occasioned so many decisions as the stat. 17 Geo. 3. c. 26. commonly known by the name of the Annuity Act; and a collation of the cases therefore became useful, if not necessary, to the profession. As, however, this had already been done by Mr. Hunt, in an accurate and faithful manner, there was no occasion for the first part of the present performance: but the other part, which is by far the most considerable, consisting of a vast variety of precedents, will probably afford assistance to those who are engaged in this branch of conveyancing.

Though Mr. Withy has twice mentioned the case of *Mouys* against *Leake*, B. R. M. 40 Geo. 3. reported in 8 T. R. p. 411. he has not noticed the important observations made by Lord Kenyon, respecting the grant of a rent-charge by a rector or vicar, out of his benefice, being void by the stat. 13 Eliz. c. 20. Surely the subject was of sufficient consequence to demand the editor's attention.—On the principle and authority of this decision, we very much doubt whether the precedent No. 17. can be supported; it is that of a grant of an annuity by an incumbent out of a rectory and vicarage, for his life, with a demise thereof to a trustee for 99 years, for better securing the same; with a covenant that, in case the grantor should exchange or be preferred to any other living, he would charge the

!e of Scripture-[illegible] [illegible], urable; and to pa[illegible] [illegible] e volume before us Th[illegible] [illegible] chapters ning some parts of the prophet Daniel's Visions. The leads the reader back to Jeremiah, and then to Moses, ohetic character of the Chaldeans and Romans; whence m forwards to St. Paul's description of the *Man* of *sin*, e passages in the Apocalypse.—On the whole, though hibits nothing which, strictly speaking, might be ie- :ew, we may consider it as an instructive performance; in vivid colours, the dreadful effects of bigotry and super- of a tyrannical, domineering, and worldly spirit; parti- hey have been manifested in the enormous pretensions ions of the church of Rome. Antichrist, however, is :rm, and of extensive meaning; and therefore, though be eminently intitled to the distinction of that title, it is that other principles and powers fall within its scope. iclusion, the increase of popery in this country is discussed; .Zouch thinks it may 'without impropriety be asked, whe- rch of Rome hath not enlarged the number of her votaries? her usual zeal excited every act of wily policy to extend :?' Again he remarks; 'when the establishment of that ronounced to be venerable—when it is declared that Pro- Catholics are divided by thin partitions—when the fabric idolatry is dignified with the appellation of "the majesty '—when in a neighbouring kingdom a college hath been the expence of the nation, for the exclusive education 'riests,'—such things have an aspect more favourable to i is to be wished.—We have only to add that the zeal of ippears to be properly tempered by Christian moderation ence.

An Address to Young People on the Necessity and Importance *on*. By John Evans, A.M. Master of a Seminary for Number of Pupils, Pullin's Row, Islington. 12mo. nonds.

ıor, having remarked that the religion of Jesus Christ nmended to youth by a number of weighty considerations, say,—'To two classes of arguments, however, shall I myself; the one drawn from yourselves, the other derived situation and connections.'—This remark may be con- n outline of the present little tract; which is plain and is and impressive. In a rational manner, the writer invites il reader's attention to the Scriptures, and to the spirit : of religion as there delineated; free from the deceptions, i, and the vagaries, of enthusiasm and superstition.

An Essay, tending to prove that Christianity has promoted the *of Man*, as an intellectual, moral, and social, Being. .. Mathews. 1800.

ristianity is calculated to ameliorate the state of mankind, : will be hardy enough to contradict. When it is asked, it its efficacy been greater, or more apparent?—the e, who are really acquainted with history, civil and ecclesiastical, will be able to assign causes in reply, which it is not requisite for us to enumerate. Yet, though its intention and energies are more directly of a *private* and *personal* kind, there is just reason for supporting the belief that it has, even by *these means*, been of essential service to communities and nations. To illustrate and establish such a position, according to the three divisions mentioned in the above title, is the design of this pamphlet; and, in our view, the writer has accomplished his purpose.

Having observed the very different aspects of Pagan and Christian countries, the author justly inquires into the cause of so considerable an effect; and he observes: — 'The page of history, sacred or prophane, does not furnish one solitary instance of a people, that have, by their own efforts, emerged from idolatry and the immorality that attends it. Had there not existed some cause, then, for this palpable difference, there is reason to presume that the state of society in Europe, would have worn but a similar appearance, in it's similar stages, with the state of society in heathen countries, ancient or modern. Christianity excepted, the page of history makes mention of no phænomenon, adequate to produce this difference. We think it just therefore to consider the Christian religion as the proximate efficient cause of the above-mentioned difference.'

No writer on this topic, who understood his subject, could fail to advert to the slave-trade; and this author accordingly insists on the very material difference between the Pagan and the Christian world

St. Peter, a Sermon preached before the University of Cambridge, May 4, 1800. By Francis Wrangham, M. A. 8vo. pp. 216. 6s. Boards. Mawman. 1800.

These sermons appear to us to form an attentive and faithful abridgement of the volume published, more than half a century ago, by the ever respectable Dr. Doddridge. That the work was then well received in the world, and has continued in estimation, has been proved not only by testimonies in its favour from persons of different ranks and denominations, but also by its having passed through numerous editions*: it has indeed been, and still may be, useful to numbers, even though they should not heartily concur in that scheme of systematical divinity to which it evidently inclines. The more concise form, in which it now appears, may probably increase its utility; and this, we are convinced, was the design and the earnest desire with which it is thus presented to public notice:—but we may be permitted to ask whether, in p. 140, the full meaning of the original work is exactly ascertained; whether by the phrase *sensitive* pleasure, against which the reader is warned, is not intended the immoderate pursuit of what is considered as innocent, rather than the indulgence of intemperance?

Of the two other discourses which compose the volume, the first has already received from us the approbation which it so justly merited†; the second treats on the character of St. Peter, as affording an argument for the truth of the gospel, and is an useful and seasonable discourse. The notes accompanying each render them still more valuable.

Art. 30. *A Refutation of some of the more modern Misrepresentations of the Society of Friends, commonly called Quakers;* with a Life of James Nayler. By Joseph Gurney Bevan. 8vo. pp. 124. 2s. W. Phillips. 1800.

Mr. J. Gurney Bevan complains that the doctrines and practices of the Quakers have been misrepresented. 'When the religious society of Friends (says he) first attracted public notice, it had this mark in common with the primitive Christian church, it was every where spoken against. Numerous were the misrepresentations which its enemies poured forth from the press; many of which are now only remembered, or heard of, by the answers which were given to them. Others have still survived, and are occasionally brought forth from their obscurity to answer the purpose of modern malevolence; in which, when they fall into the hands of such as do not know that they have been fully refuted, they are but too successful. There are also some later authors who are not to be suspected of a wish to misrepresent us; but who, drawing their information from unauthentic records, are from time to time adding to the mist with which prejudice delights to keep us surrounded; and causing those who, in their search after truth in matters of religion, might be willing to examine our doctrines in their genuine colours, to turn away in disgust from a people, which, viewed through the medium of misrepresentation, appears little more than a heap of deformity.

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* See Kippis's Life of Doddridge, 8vo. p. 88.——95.

† See Rev. vol. xxviii. N. S. p. 237.

'We are certainly, compared with the millions of our countrymen, but few in number; the world, in its pursuit of fame, of wealth, and of pleasure, takes little account of us; and the tracts, which, on particular occasions, have been published by our authors, either to elucidate our doctrines, or to defend them, seldom attract notice enough to be much purchased out of the pale of our own Society. It is not therefore always easy to find the means of setting the public right, when we are sure its credulity is abused. Where few are disposed to listen, small is the encouragement to speak.'

This is true: an apologist has at all times an arduous task to perform: but, if people be not disposed to give him a fair hearing, he might as well lay down his pen. The principal writers who, according to this author, have misrepresented the *Society of Friends*, are Mosheim, Maclaine, Formey, Hume, the Editors of the Encyclopædia Britannica, and Wesley; against all of whom he brings charges which impeach, if not their veracity, at least their credulity and their prepossessions. The lovers of truth should peruse this little piece with attention. The Quakers are as much intitled to critical justice as any other body of men; and it is shameful to impute to *any* body of men, tenets which they do not hold, and practices which they disclaim.

To this justification of the society are added a *life of James Nayler*, (which, in our opinion, had better have been omitted,) and a *summary*

introducing the testimony of 'Friends' on this occasion, the
ious compiler brings forwards the names of the celebrated George
Isaac Pennington, William Penn, Barclay the apologist, and
s of later date: also the collective sentiments of the society at
, as delivered at quarterly meetings, &c.—Indeed, from their
ral conduct, and especially considering their strong and truly
tian objections to WAR, we cannot but wish, with our late
id, the good and penetrating WHITEHURST, that ALL THE
LD WERE QUAKERS!

32. *A few plain Reasons for the Belief of a Christian.* By
homas Robinson, M. A. Rector of Ruan-minor, Cornwall. 8vo.
Robinsons.

ing of opinion that infidelity obtains converts among professed
tians, in consequence of their ignorance of the principles and
nces of revealed religion, Mr. R. has here endeavoured to
h them with a plain and compendious statement of the principal
nents which are usually adduced to establish the credibility of
acred writings; and his pamphlet is well calculated to answer
purpose for which it was intended. It treats of the different
itions of the will of God—of the reasons for believing the Old
New Testaments—of the reasons for believing the present Scrip-
to be agreeable to the original,—and concludes with some addi-
l arguments for believing in the divine origin of Christianity.
additional, Mr. R. means not arguments absolutely new, but
as were not adduced in the former chapters; for he pretends
o novelty, and indeed the subject is scarcely capable of it. He
opinion that the credibility of revealed religion is established
e concurring testimonies of such wise and good men as Bacon,
on, Milton, Boyle, Lo[illegible], and Addison, who have openly
sed their conviction of its truth; and he wishes that every one,
is inclined to doubt on this important subject, would call to re-
brance the sentiments of these illustrious men, and consider
her they or he be the most likely to ascertain the truth. This
ing the argument rather too far. The faith of men eminent
trength of mind, learning, and virtue, should be adduced as a
n why we ought not to decline an examination of the evidences of
led religion, since such belief affords a presumptive proof of
being satisfactory: but no one should be required to believe
respect for the opinion of another. We are commanded in the
tures to *search* that we may believe.

33. *Considerations on the present State of Religion, Speculative and Practical, in this Country.* 8vo. 2s. Hatchard. 1801.

writer who takes up his pen for the amiable purpose of dimi-
ig religious dissent, and of making the public system as compre-
ve as may be possible, will be respected by all persons of generous
oble sentiments: but men who are acquainted with the world
orm no splendid expectations from such efforts. Pamphlets re-
iending trifling alterations in the Liturgy are not likely to meet
any attention; and even supposing that such alterations were
the avowed object would probably not be attained. If no

objections attached to the Liturgy of the Established Church but such as the author of these Considerations enumerates, viz. the damnatory clauses in the Athanasian Creed,—the epithet " most religious" applied to the King in the Prayer for the High Court of Parliament,—and the form of absolution in the visitation of the sick,—there would be reason for calling on dissenters to give a proof of wisdom and liberality, by generously tolerating these specks and blemishes on a service otherwise irreproachable; and not to plead them in justification of separation. We are of opinion, however, that the objections of Dissenters extend wider and deeper; and that, in the present state of speculative and practical religion in this country, there is little chance of including all professing Christians *in one fold.* All that can be expected is mutual candour. Trifling discussions have disappeared from the controversy; and it is not likely that the serious points at issue will be soon adjusted. We must wait the ameliorations of time.

POETRY, &c.

Art. 34. *Convivialia et Saltatoria*; or a few Thoughts upon Feasting and Dancing: a Poem, in Two Parts: also a Poetical Epistle in Praise of Tobacco. By G. Orchestikos. 8vo. 1s. West and Hughes.

This writer seems to be a descendant of the celebrated Lucilius, who is recorded to have dictated 200 verses in the space of an hour, standing on one leg. In poetry, however, where negligence seldom fails

The former to *chat*, three or four in a party,
On subjects which caus'd them to laugh rather hearty;
For youth's ever pleas'd with a well contriv'd joke,
Or an amorous tale which concludes with a stroke
Of good humour.'

The poem intitled *Nicotiana*, in praise of tobacco, is addressed to ie late William Cowper, Esq. the much admired poet, in consequence of his remarks on the use of tobacco in his poem *On Conversaon.* It is prefaced by a complimentary letter received from Mr. owper, in reply to one addressed to him by the author with a copy f his poem: but it contains, we apprehend, a mere compliment; ince we imagine that those who have read *the Pipe of Tobacco*, in Dodsley's Collection, cannot greatly admire such lines as these:

' The man I pity who abhors the fume
Of fine Virginia floating in his room:
For, if, by Fate, he's doom'd to solitude,
A pipe will cheer him when in pensive mood,
Will help to banish ev'ry fretful thought,
And make him rich although scarce worth a groat:
Rich in himself, contented with his lot,
And thankful to his God *for what he's got.*'

From the last poem, intitled *the Muff*, eight lines also may suffice a specimen:

' To state the form in which a muff appears,
Would almost be a tedious waste of words,
Since none who see it but at once discern
A cylinder of more than half-yard long,
Which, by compression, *oft* has flatted sides;
With aperture, alike, at either end,
In which the arms are introduc'd with ease,
Envelopp'd there with sarcenet stuff'd with wool.'

As the author concludes in a very benevolent strain, we will part with him by expressing the generous wish that the Muses, in future, may smile on him with more complacency.

Art. 35. *The British Oak*, a Poem. 4to. 3s. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

In this tribute of praise to the highly Useful and Venerable OAK, the sentiments have more merit than the poetry, and the patriot rises superior to the bard. The notes will both inform and entertain the reader.

We understand that this pamphlet was the production of the late Mr. Holliday of Lincoln's Inn, author of the Life of the Earl of Mansfield, &c.

Art. 36. *Britons United; or Britannia roused:* in humble Verse, upon different Subjects before and subsequent to the Battle of the Nile, applauding the patriotic and persevering Spirit of our brave Countrymen; is humbly presented by John Stewart, late of Mr. Secretary Dundas's Office, Downing-street. 8vo. 1s. Stewart. 1800.

As Mr. Stewart is himself aware, according to his own confession, that the *humble verse* which he here so *humbly presents* 'does not merit much praise in the eyes of a critic,' he will not expect from us any very strong commendation. We are sorry, indeed, that his loyalty and patriotism derive little advantage from his rhyming effusions. He might have amused himself: but he should not have attempted to amuse the public.

Art. 37. *Signs of the Times,* (a Poem,) or the Downfall of the Pope, and the Papal Hierarchy: with Observations on Six Hundred Sixty Six, the Number of the Roman Beast. Also a Contrast between the Numbers Six and Seven. By William Scott. 8vo. 6d. Crosby and Co.

We are far from questioning Mr. Scott's goodness, but he makes a very liberal use of the *term* which designates a *naughty woman,* without generating any thing which has the most distant resemblance to poetry. Within the space of two pages, we have the following couplets:

> 'The Pope cast out, his seat knows him no more
> The Roman Beast, like fire, burns up the Roman Whore.'
>
> 'The like Reform which now consumes Rome's Whore,
> Shall burn up "Anti-Christ" for ever more.'

Mr. S has not a better talent at explanation than he discovers in the art of *poem* making; at least, our understandings are too dense to be pierced by the illumination which he conveys:

> '[6, 6, 6.] units, tens, hundreds; six is all the sum;
> Go on uniting, ad infinitum;
> Yet SIX, SIX, SIX: –the beastly number given,
> Ne'er did, nor will, nor can, make number SEV'N.
> Therefore the word of God doth ever fix,
> Man's highest number at precisely SIX.'

Misnomers frequently occur in the titles of books, and we think that the present pamphlet affords an instance.—Suppose, instead, of *Signs of the Times,* we read *Symptoms of Nonsense?*

POLITICS.

Art. 38. *Considerations on the Present State of Europe,* with Respect to Peace, or the further Prosecution of the War. 8vo. pp. 120. 3s. Debrett 1801.

"Principles change with times;" and in nothing is this axiom more completely verified than in politics. Not long ago, it was contended that the nature of the Government of France, and her annexation of Belgium to her territory, were insuperable obstacles to peace: but we are now told that we must not consider the form of the French Government as a decided barrier to pacification; and that, as to the Belgic provinces, they can by no means be so injurious to us in the hands of France, as some politicians have represented. The author of this pamphlet, in discussing our situation with respect to peace and war, considers us as *in utrumque parati.* If peace be the object, he points out on what terms and by what concessions it ought

to

e made; and if a continuance of war be deemed for the present re advisable, he shews in what way we are to arrange our naval e. ' Great Britain, (he observes,) to keep her footing with nce in the civilized world, must, as France extends her integral ninion, increase her colonial possessions and foreign settlements.' is therefore for retaining the most important of our conquests, as rlon, Trinidada, Minorca, and even Malta: but, if Malta must be rendered, he advises that it should be given to the Emperor of rmany. At all events, it is recommended to throw the odium of farther prosecution of the war *from* our own government, and to ce it on the shoulders of our enemies.

MISCELLANEOUS.

t. 39. *A Proposal in Behalf of the Married Poor.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Arch.

The scheme here proposed is prefaced by observations which evince author's acquaintance with the subject discussed; and though his n may fail of producing all the good which he supposed, we are rsuaded that, if his ideas respecting the poor and the present code poor laws were generally prevalent, less vice and less misery would found among the indigent classes of society.

The system pursued in Holland is particularly recommended. In at country, a common beggar was a very rare sight; though the pulation was immense, compared with the number of acres, and ough the inhabitants groaned under an enormous weight of taxes. In Holland (says this writer) the poor were considered as the help- s children of the state; and the parent state accordingly fostered em in a manner becoming a moral, sober, and most industrious ople; taking an especial care, at the same time, that the labour of ose who were relieved should reimburse the parent state; and thus, hile their poor were comfortably supported, morals were aided and dustry promoted to a degree that excited the admiration of man- nd.'

This example merits imitation. Instead of indiscriminate cha- y, which is a perversion of virtue; and of indolent charity, which no virtue at all; let our bounty towards the poor originate in good inciples, and be directed by superintending wisdom. We have fre- ently heard it lamented that the distributors of parochial aid do t distinguish between the sober and the profligate, the industrious d the idle; and that, owing to this neglect, the stimulus to virtuous ection and activity is gradually subsiding in the bosoms of the or. Hence a serious evil is forming, which cannot be too soon rected; and to apply a remedy to this disorder is one object of the hor of this pamphlet. He proposes to appoint, in every parish, ides the common overseers, a committee of inspectors, who may be lified by their situation and talents to observe the conduct of the r, and to become guardians of their rising progeny, distinctly from general care of the parish paupers.—As the author's observa- s, however, are on the whole excellent, we rather recommend his ral view of the subject, than limit our praise to his proposal, h is open to some objections.

Art. 40. *Travels in the Interior of Africa*, from the Cape of Good Hope to Morocco, from the Years 1781 to 1797; through Caffraria, the Kingdoms of Mataman, Angola, Massi, Monœmugi, Muschako, &c. Likewise across the great Desart of Sahara, and the Northern Parts of Barbary. Translated from the German of Christian Frederic Damberger. Illustrated by a Map and coloured Plates. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Phillips. Another Edition printed for Longman and Co. 1801.

Since the appearance of this work in English, we have learnt from various quarters, as well as from the pamphlet which is the subject of the next article, that the original is a most barefaced and impudent forgery, manufactured from books [Dampier, &c.] by the felonious industry of a journeyman printer, of Wittenberg; by whom the too credulous booksellers of Germany, France, and England, have been completely *taken in*:—as were also (tell it not in Gath,) some foreign REVIEWERS!!!

Art. 41. *Of the Shoe maker Schrödter, the Printer Taurinius, and the Cabinet-maker Damberger*, who never travelled at all, but fabricated their Accounts in one Manufactory. 8vo. 1s. Geisweiler. 1801.

From the unquestionable and curious circumstances here detailed, it appears that two books of Eastern Travels published under the name of Joseph Schrödter, as well as another book under that of Damberger, were both fabricated by a Saxon mechanic, a printer, who called himself Zacharias Taurinius.—This *genius* seems to have

Mr. B.'s narrative, however, is witten with a competent degree of spirit; and he appears to console himself with the reflection that he has done his duty, as a faithful son of the Church of England.

Art. 43. *Letter to the Rev. Thomas Bere, Rector of Butcombe,* occasioned by his late unwarrantable Attack on Mrs. Hannah More. With an *Appendix,* containing Letters and other Documents relative to the extraordinary Proceedings at Blagdon. By the Rev. Sir Abraham Elton, Bart. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies.

This publication is drawn up with ability; and though in *matter* the author is perhaps unavoidably severe on his opponent, yet in his manner of writing he treats Mr. B. with proper respect and decorum. In conclusion, however, he seems to insist on that gentleman's acknowleging, as a condition of reconciliation, that he has made '*an unwarrantable attack*' on Mrs. H. M.—It is not our province to give judgment in this case.

Art. 44. *The Life of *********, Esq.* With the Circumstance of his Conversion, under the Preaching of the Gospel, at the Providence Chapel in London. Being a Testimonial of unmerited Free Grace, and the Sovereignty of God, in the Choice of his elect People. Written by Himself. 2d Edition. 8vo. 1s. Bath, printed for Meyler, &c. London, Priestley, &c. 1801.

We scarcely know in what light to view this strange production: but it appears to us that, under the *similitude,* as honest John Bunyan would say, of memoirs of a Methodistical chimney-sweeper, a severe attack is here made on the principles of certain sectarians, the *predestinarian* tribe, which are here painted in most horrible colours!—and this is done under such guise, that some credulous readers may imagine the pamphlet to have really been written by a person of the description announced in the title-page.—Other ideas, however, may be excited by perusing the *Remark* printed at the end of this *apocryphal* performance.

Art. 45. *Narrative of the singular Adventures and Captivity of Mr. Thomas Barry,* among the Monsipi Indians, in the unexplored Regions of North America, during the years 1797, 1798, and 1799: including the Manners, Customs, &c. of that Tribe; also a particular Account of his Escape, accompanied by an American Female; the extraordinary Hardships they encountered; and their safe Arrival in London. Written by Himself. 12mo. 1s. Neil, in Sommers town, near London. 1800.

If the extraordinary adventures here set forth be really and honestly founded on facts, we should not scruple to recommend this little story as a truly interesting publication. If, on the contrary, it shall prove to be only the mere offspring of *Invention,* it will naturally be consigned to oblivion. We cannot decide the question:—appearances are in favour of the authenticity of the narrative, but appearances are often deceitful.

Art. 46. *Scattered Thoughts, adapted to the Times; and particularly to the present Season.* By a Friend to Church and State. Small 12mo. 3d. Hatchard.

This scatterer is very good in not diffusing his thoughts over a multitude of pages; and we thank him for his brevity: but in other repsects we do not find much occasion for gratitude. He censures the Quakers for not shutting their shops on Good-Friday, the Jews for want of outward respect to the Christian Sabbath, and Protestant Christians for allowing 'hot-cross buns to be sold on Good Friday.' Before, however, he had so strenuously urged the religious observance of this day on all Christians, and had reprobated those who neglect it, he should have produced an order for its observance from Scripture: since, if it be a duty of *universal obligation*, it must be so in consequence of some positive command. Paul's liberal principle, in Rom. xiv. 6., should be applied on this and on all similar occasions.

Art. 47. *Reflections on the Present State of Things in these Nations.* By the late excellent Dissenting Divine, John Leland, D. D.: and now re-published by a Lay-Member of the Church of England. 8vo. 4d. Hatchard.

These reflections are re-printed from the Appendix to the second volume of Dr. Leland's *View of the Principal Deistical Writers*, (see M. Rev. Old Series, vol. xii. p. 171. 422.), and were written half a century ago in the form of a discourse in consequence of a proclamation for a general fast. Dr. L.'s observations are not only serious, but what are termed *awakening*; and they apply to the present as well as to the past *immoral* state of the nation: but there is nothing in them which can distinguish them from many similar exhortations to thusiastic veneration of the Pontiff, and an utter detestation of his emies.—Between the philosophical biographer and the professed comiast, the impartial historian will draw the line; and he who ishes fairly to appreciate the character of Pius VI. will compare e two accounts of him. We, who regard no man (not even a ope) as infallible, and who know that situations of supreme power e not very propitious to virtue, can easily suppose that a Pope may ve his faults: but, whatever were those of the late Pontiff, it must confessed that he atoned for them by his misfortunes; and we are rsuaded that, with every humane protestant, the consideration of s failings will be lost in admiration of the resignation and magnanity which he displayed under his sorrows and humiliations.

rt. 49. *Lavater's Looking-Glass;* or Essays on the Face of animated Nature, from Man to Plants. Dedicated to her Grace the Duchess of Devonshire. By Lavater, Sue, and Co. 8vo. pp. 209. 5s. 6d. Boards. Richardsons, &c. 1800.

Had *Physiognomy* been an article of commerce, we should have een this signature for the *firm* of a house dealing in that comodity: but what *Lavater, Sue, and Co.* have to do in the present inance, we cannot tell. The Duchess of Devonshire will, probably not be attered by a dedication from non-entities, and the public will look th eyes askance on a publication which comes in so questionable a ape. It is a compilation from Lavater's work; and those who mire physiognomical disquisitions may derive from it some gratiation.

rt. 50. *The Sceptic.* 8vo. pp. 70. West and Hughes. 1800.

Some wag, whose lucubrations we suspect to have come under our gnizance in a graver garb *, has here indulged himself most irreerently in a laugh at some late chemical and chemico-pathological ctrines. Many of his jokes relate to Mr. Davy's experiments on ght, and must in course fall blunted by that gentleman's candid reaction of the opinions which he had expressed. We shall extract e following passages, as a specimen of the author's manner:

'Sometimes Caloric will appear when nobody thought him near em; and even his brother Antiphlogiston stares with astonishent, and wonders how the D—l he came there; as lately happened the presence of Count Rumford and of Mr. Davy.

'In fact, they, as well as Antiphlogiston himself, were so struck th his appearance, that they concluded he must be either the D—l, perpetual motion personified, they hardly knew now; and they rdly knew which: except Mr. Davy, who at last swore that he s motion and nothing else.

'Some people take him for the D—l, and treat him as such: for mple, certain great Physicians have lately entered into a compact h him; the conditions of which are, that Caloric shall be at their and command, to enter into strange shapes and combinations, to suffer himself to be *conjured* into a *bladder*. In this state he is be sold to make their fortunes; when (as soon as the money is paid,) he disengages himself from the purchaser, leaving nothing but his nastiness behind him.'

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* The pamphlet is printed at Retford.

It is the fate of squibs, like the present, to die before the object at which they are discharged; and the interest of the general satire, in this pamphlet, is already annihilated.

Art. 51. *A Satirical View of London*, at the Commencement of the xixth Century. By an Observer. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Kearsley, &c. 1801.

A very entertaining and well-written performance; the author of which appears to be a man of extensive knowlege and just observation; possessing also an acute discrimination of characters and manners.—We say that his book is well written, and so, in general, it unquestionably is: but we must make a slight exception in regard to the casual introduction of what are call.' *Irishisms* and *Scotticisms*,—such as, p. 47. '*will*' for *shall*; and p. 217, 'we *will* fix' &c. with one or two other such little slips, which seem to mark that the writer is not an Englishman. As we learn that he is preparing for a second edition, we wish him to correct also a misquotation from Pope, viz. p. 233,

" To mend the genius, and inform the heart."

It should be

" To raise the genius, and to mend the heart."

Art. 52. *Sequel to Barrington's Voyage to New South Wales*, comprehending an interesting narrative of the Transactions and Behaviour of the Convicts; the Progress of the Colony; and an official Register of Crimes, Trials, Sentences, and Executions that have taken place: a topographical, and moral Account of the Country, Manners, Customs, &c. of the natives, and most distinguished Convicts, &c. By the celebrated George Barrington, principal Superintendant of the Convicts. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Symonds. 1800.

In p. 474. of our Review for December, 1795, we had an opportunity of recommending to our readers the former part of Mr. B.'s account of his (*involuntary*) voyage to New South Wales, and of his favourable situation in the vicinity of Botany Bay. What we then remarked concerning the character of this heteroclite adventurer in the wildest walks of society, and the general merit of his narrative, will circumstantially and strictly apply to this second publication: and now we are glad to find that the author remains a living * proof that *extirpation* is not always the best method of curing the moral diseases of erring members of society:—for such an instance is certainly afforded by the case of this useful (we may add respectable) police officer, whose reformation and subsequent conduct have procured for him the highest approbation which, in his *expatriated* circumstances, he could possibly acquire.

In his concluding paragraph, Mr. B. takes occasion to speak of himself in the following not unbecoming terms:

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* At least he was so at the end of the year 1796, (if we mistake not the precise time,) when he concluded this second part of his narrative; the dates of which are very imperfectly given.

'During this time, my domestic concerns improved imperceptibly, so that my situation was equal, if not preferable to most of the *Settlers*[*] here; having a flock of sheep consisting of thirty-eight, with fourteen goats, a most excellent milch cow, half a dozen breeding sows, and a very plentiful stock of poultry; and to add to the comforts of my situation,' in the month of September 1796, his Excellency Governor Hunter was pleased to present me with an absolute pardon, under the great seal of the colony, and appointed me a principal superintendant of the district of Parremutta, with a permanent salary of 50 pounds a year, in the room of Thomas Clark, who was returning to Enland.—Hitherto my situation had been only provisional.—The Governor was pleased to compliment me on "the faithful discharge of my duty, the integrity and uniform uprightness of my conduct, and my general behaviour during my whole residence in the colony," which he said, "perfectly obliterated every trace of my former indiscretions."

Art. 53. *Correspondence relative to the stationing of a Troop of the 4th Regiment of Dragoons, in the County of Carnarvon.* 8vo. pp. 54. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies, &c. 1801.

This pamphlet is said to be published 'from motives of respect to his Majesty's 4th regiment of Dragoons;' but we do not see that the *conduct* of that regiment is in any degree implicated in the transaction here related. The Correspondence consists of Letters between Magistrates of Carnarvonshire, the Lord Lieutenant of that county, the Duke of Portland, the General commanding in the North-western district, &c. respecting the arrival of a troop of the 4th Dragoons at Carnarvon and Bangor in January last, in consequence of information sent by some of the Magistrates to the War-office, that there was danger of insurrection among the quarry men. The opinions of the country Magistrates varied on this occasion; some urging and others denying the necessity and propriety of this military manœuvre; and the present pamphlet appears to come from one of the Justices who were of the latter persuasion, and whose letters to the Lord-Lieutenant, the General, &c. compose the greater part of it.—The question admits of no opinion from us.

Art. 54. *The Western Mail.* Being a Series of Letters, &c. 12mo. 4s. sewed. Mawman. 1801.

PLAN. The Western mail is robbed by the unhappy husband of a wretched wife, and father of several starving children. The unfortunate depredator expiates his crime at the gallows: after which, a friend to his hapless family finds in their possession a bag[†] of curious letters; many of which he benevolently (but not scrupulously) determines to publish for the benefit of the widow and children of his late friend, who so unlawfully obtained them. Here, then, commences a miscellany of well imagined correspondence: but the names and dates are all very prudently suppressed.—The supposed writers are persons of almost every rank and degree, and of both sexes; who respectively express themselves in a style not ill adapted to their several assumed characters, situations, and circumstances. Several of the letters are seasoned with humour: but most of them are appropriated to subjects of a moral and prudential cast; while not a few serve to amuse us with scenes exhibiting traits of high life, and enlivened with pictures of men and manners, vices and follies, selected from the *fashionable world*. These are sketched with a pencil which manifests a degree of genius in the artist; displaying a variety of natural and just resemblances of such originals as are generally well known, in the public and private walks of life, from the proud Peer to the humble Peasant, and from the haughty titled Dame to the flirting Chambermaid, or the simple Dairy-girl, fresh from her honest father's little farm.—We have also touches of a literary kind, in which the writer's judgment and taste are displayed, with no mean degree of success, on various topics relative to politics, poetry, criticism, &c. &c.

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[*] Persons not transported, but voluntary colonists, farmers, &c.

[†] Surely no good moral is inculcated by the story of the bag of letters. An honorable discoverer of property so feloniously obtained would have returned the bag, with its contents, to the *Post-ffice*, instead of sending them *to the Press!*—As to our doing evil hat good may come of it, we know where that notion is absolutely eprobated.

We have not the smallest ground of conjecture respecting the author's identity; but, whoever he be, we cannot close his performance without acknowledging the entertainment which he has afforded us;—

Art. 57. *Preached before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal*, in the Abbey Church, Westminster, Feb. 13, 1801, being the Day appointed by Proclamation for a General Fast. By Brownlow, Lord Bishop of Winchester 4to. 1s. 6d. Wright.

This sermon forms a commentary on Proverbs xiv. 34. *Righteousness exalteth a nation*; and the Right Rev. author has with great felicity illustrated the important doctrine which that passage contains. It is a temperate and judicious composition, in which his Lordship has introduced no political discussions; justly observing 'that political details are unfit for this place.'

We have derived unalloyed pleasure from the perusal of this discourse; and we recommend it to the attention of our readers, on account of the purity of the doctrines which it inculcates, and the correct and eloquent language in which those sentiments are conveyed.

Art. 58. *Preached before the Honourable House of Commons*, at the Church of St. John the Evangelist, Westminster, Feb. 13, 1801, being the Day appointed for a General Fast. By Richard Prosser, D. D. Rector of Gateshead, Durham. 4to. 1 s. 6d. Payne, &c.

A judicious and impressive sermon on the text, "As many as I love, I rebuke and chasten; be zealous therefore and repent. Behold I stand at the door and knock." Rev. ch. viii. ver. 19. from which the writer endeavours to draw consolation from the very misfortunes which we have experienced. He recommends, with earnestness, a general penitence for the sins that we have committed; and that the sincerity of this contrition should be evinced by general amendment.—The discourse is well adapted to the occasion, and may be perused with advantage.

Art. 59. Preached in the Parish Church of Dudley, on Feb. 13, 1801, (the General Fast,) containing an *Address to British Soldiers*: a respectable Body of them being present. By the Rev. L. Booker, LL. D. 8vo. 1s. 6d. West and Hughes.

The title-page farther informs us that this sermon was published in consequence of request, for the benefit of the *Soup Charity*.—We should have been glad if that part of it, which is particularly addressed to the soldiery, had been *extracted*, and circulated among the British troops wherever so proper an exhortation could conveniently have been distributed to them

Art. 60. Preached before the Mayor, &c. of the Town of Berwick upon Tweed, 13th Feb. 1801, being the Day appointed for a General Fast. By the Rev. William Stow Lundie, B. A. 4to. 1s. Law.

An exhortation to pious gratitude, to repentance, and to charity. Mr. Lundie animadverts on the prevalence of adultery, and laments the long continuance of the present direful but *just and necessary* contest. He congratulates his countrymen on the Union with Ireland; which, he thinks, with an effectual reformation of manners and the return of peace, may make us the happiest of Nations.

Art. 61. *The Gospel Testimony:* preached at the Opening of the New Meeting, near Greenland-Dock, Rotherhithe, Aug. 25, 1800. By John Townsend. 8vo. 1s. Mathews.

This long sermon, the delivery of which occupied an hour and a quarter, is completely antiquated both in form and substance. The *spot* on which it was preached is said to be 'a populous neighbourhood,' where several of the author's *members* are reported to be scattered: who are exhorted to adhere to the Calvinistic tenets as the glorious doctrines of the Gospel. Mr. T. quotes a variety of texts in support of his dogmas: but, when he represents Christ as *bearing our sins and sorrows*, he does not exhibit the Gospel explication of that phrase given in Matthew viii. 17. He glories in the old fashioned system; instead of which he represents 'some as delivering a few well-selected scraps of natural history, and others some good hints upon morality:' but such preachers, he solaces himself with thinking, deliver their essays to empty pews and bare walls; while those of his persuasion build churches and fill them.

It may be retorted that the ignorant always outnumber the wise; that the Church of Christ is represented as a *little flock;* and that numbers never formed, and never will form, the test of truth.

Art. 62. *Freedom of Enquiry, and Zeal in the Diffusion of Christian Truth, asserted and recommended,* in a Discourse delivered at Bristol, July 9, 1800, before the Society of Unitarian Christians, established in the West of England, for promoting Christian a one view they are perfectly parallel. Though the Gospel is preached to the poor, and though the doctrines of revealed religion are level to the plainest capacity, that knowlege which is necessary to a critical examination of the genuine evidences and testimonies of Christianity demands an extent of learning which cannot appertain to the vulgar. The language in which it was originally delivered is now become obsolete; and new languages have since sprung up, into which the sense of the antient scripture is, in some instances, with difficulty transfused. By the philologist, this obstacle is surmountable: but with the multitude it must remain an impediment which should teach them to refrain from being too dogmatical and conceited; and it should suppress that inconsiderate ardor which some discover, to include all mankind in the class of well-informed and accurately thinking Christians. Experience evinces the truth of this observation. Propose some principle of religious quackery, some fascinating dogma, by which the road to heaven is made more facile than by the regular but arduous course of practical piety and morality, and multitudes will readily embrace the delusion, and flock around the banners of the sect: but, if the proposal be tedious examination and research into the authenticity of scripture, and into the genuine drift and purport of its unsophisticated language, in order to dispel the mists of error and prejudice, to simplify faith, and to erect virtue on the basis of knowlege,—few comparatively will listen to it. Should these few happen to be distinguished, their tenets may obtain reputation; or should they be powerful, establishment may be effected: but the multitude will assent without adequate judgment, and believe without accurate discrimination.

While, then, we admire the abilities and learning of Mr. Belsham, and applaud his discourse as suited to a congregation of philosophers, we doubt whether the common mass of Christians can sufficiently appreciate the value of the privilege for which he so energetically pleads. Nothing, however, which we have advanced, is intended to repress inquiry. Mr. B. has illustrated its importance; and no cause can have a stable foundation which shrinks from it.

Art. 63. *Preached to a Society of Protestant Dissenters, in the City of York,* Dec. 31, 1800, immediately after the Interment of the Rev. Newcombe Cappe; with an Appendix containing brief Memoirs of his Life. By William Wood, F. L. S. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Johnson.

Affection and respect for the virtuous dead prepare the mind, in an especial manner, for serious impressions. Hence the moral preacher avails himself with peculiar satisfaction of such opportunities as that which was presented to Mr. Wood: and while he celebrates departed worth, he exhibits an example to the living, and demonstrates the infinite importance of religious principle when reduced to practice. Both the sermon and the memoir will give the reader no mean idea of the character of the deceased, and of the abilities of his surviving friend and biographer.

Mr. Cappe did not confine his labours to the pulpit, but extended them to the press, as several of our Reviews have borne testimony;

and we are here told that he has left for publication some dissertations on Christ's temptation, on the introduction to John's Gospel, and on the meaning of the phrases *the kingdom of God*, and *the kingdom of heaven*. These are curious subjects; and, if discussed with ability and learning, they will not fail to invite attention.

CORRESPONDENCE.

In answer to the friendly remarks of *Hinckliensis*, respecting the recent advance in the price of the Monthly Review, we beg to inform him that his idea of decreasing the quantity of our work, instead of adding to its price, in order to meet the unparalleled rise in the cost of paper, &c. certainly suggested itself to us, and was duly considered: but, besides the immediate objection to lessening the number of our pages in any considerable degree, that it would in an equal proportion decrease the utility of our labours, by abridging them at a time when the abundance of publications seems to require an extension of them; we found, on calculation, that the diminution of a whole sheet of letter press in each Number (and *more* could not be contemplated) would equal only about *one half* of the enormous expences to which we are now subjected, and which are likely to augment rather than contract. What may ultimately be the effect of such imposts and extortions, we cannot say: but, though we must *abide* their consequences, we are not *responsible* for them; and the step which we have taken is the result of absolute necessity,—not of choice.

We are sorry that we cannot comply with Mr. Grose's request: but we are often obliged to trespass on the patience of authors. This Gentleman's publication will not be forgotten, but it must take its turn.—To Mr. Saunderson, a similar answer must be given.

Z. is informed that we certainly design to review the work concerning which he writes: but, in the mean time, the reputation of its author may be a warrant to this correspondent that his money will not be thrown away in the purchase of it.

The sermon mentioned in a letter from Christ Church, Oxford, has not yet reached us: but we shall pay all proper attention to the circumstances now communicated, when it comes before us.

To 'a Constant Reader of the M. R.' we have to observe that it would be contrary to our rules to accede to his request.

☞ In the last *Appendix*, p. [illegible]. for 'Winckelman,' r. *Winckelman*.—P. 544. l. penult. for '[illegible],' r. *[illegible]*.

In the Number for May, p. [illegible] l. 5 from bott. take the mark of parenthesis from after '[illegible]' and place it after '72.'—P. 94. last line, for 'mark,' r. *[illegible]*.

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THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JULY, 1801.

RT. I. *A View of the Origin and Conduct of the War with Tippoo Sultaun*, comprising a Narrative of the Operations of the Army under the Command of Lieutenant General George Harris, and of the Siege of Seringapatam. By Lieutenant Colonel Alexander Beatson, late Aid-de-Camp to the Marquis Wellesley, Governor General of India; and Surveyor General to the Army in the Field. 4to. pp. 460. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Nicol. 1800.

To the military operations which terminated in the conquest of Mysor, we have already adverted *: but the work now fore us is recommended by a perspicuous arrangement, a pious detail even of minute particulars, and by the character authenticity which it claims as the production not only of eye-witness, but of an officer holding a distinguished station the army, the atchievements of which he records. "*Quorum rs magna fui*," are terms disclaimed by the modesty of British lour: yet, when the Surveyor General to an army becomes e historian of its operations, few will question the accuracy his narrative.

From the period at which the Sultaun of Mysor beheld his ominions curtailed by the conclusion of the treaty of Seringa-atam, in 1792, his implacable mind breathed only revenge; and, isregarding the unmerited clemency which he had experienced hen at the mercy of the victors, he began to employ every ngine which he could devise to excite a general combination gainst the English power. His embassies to France and the ttoman Porte had no other object; and every court in Hin-ustan, from the powerful sovereign of the Abdallis to the ob-cure Rajah of Nepal, became the scene of his intrigues, and of is clandestine machinations. The state of his military strength nd financial resources, however, does not appear to have kept ice with the ardor of his resentment; and had not the

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[*] See Memoirs of Tippu Sultaun, and Review of the origin of e war in Mysor, M. R. vol. xxxi. p. 224. and vol. xxxiii. p. 85.

mercenary views of the Captain of a French vessel, named Ripaud, who accidentally touched at his ports, induced him to deceive the Sultaun by representing the facility with which a large and efficient force could be procured from the Mauritius, it is not probable that he would so soon have again ventured to rouse the formidable vengeance under which he had recently suffered. His application for that purpose to the Chiefs at the Mauritius were forwarded to France, with strong recommendations; and the English Governor General felt the necessity of striking an effectual blow, before the succours could arrive on which this insidious adversary founded his hopes. At that period, (Sept. 1798.) a complication of difficulties called forth, in a particular manner, the energy and the resources of a mind naturally vigorous and resolute.

> 'The anxiety hitherto entertained, with regard to the designs of Tippu Sultaun, was now confirmed by a certain knowledge of his having actually proposed to the French, projects of the most extensive hostility against the British possessions in India. The alarm, as well as the danger, was considerably aggravated by the formidable preparations of the French in the Mediterranean; by the apparent desperate state of our alliances in the Decan; by the peculiar situation of the Court of Hyderabad, subjected to the will of a powerful French army and faction; by the menacing declarations and probable views of Yeman Shah; by the distribution of the army of Fort St. George, throughout various posts in the Carnatic, the island of Ceylon, and the eastern islands recently captured from the Dutch; and above all, by the general persuasion that an early attempt to assemble or to move that army would serve only as a provocation to the enemy to invade and desolate the Carnatic, without furnishing the means of repelling the invader.'

The most imminent danger was apprehended from the French army at Hyderabad. Under the command of the late Monsieur Raymond, their numbers had gradually augmented, and their discipline had improved. 'They had now nearly reached the number of 14,000 men; and had attained a degree of discipline superior in every respect to that of any native infantry in India, excepting the Sepoys entertained in the Company's service.' A negotiation was immediately opened with the Nizam for their dismission, a measure which his Highness's fears had alone prevented him from sooner adopting. A British detachment reached Hyderabad on the 10th October, and, with the co-operation of a body of his Cavalry, surrounded the camp of the French army, disarmed all the Sepoys, and secured the persons of all the French officers then in camp.

In the meantime, amid strenuous preparations for hostility, the Governor General apprized the Sultaun of the alarm which his ıchinations had excited; and urged him to admit an ssador, who might conciliate such differences as should etween the States, and receive the explanation which his as conduct had rendered necessary. Vague and general ions of pacific intentions were the only reply which be extorted, after such intervals of time as too clearly ed the Sultaun's intention of protracting the negotiations e return of the rainy season should preclude military ions; during which the arrival of a French force might him, instead of acting on the defensive, to carry the to the enemy's country. Under these circumstances, no tive was left but a vigorous prosecution of hostilities.

forces which marched from the eastern and western of India, to attack the capital of Mysor in the heart peninsula, composed the most formidable power which uropean state had hitherto sent into the field, in that y. 'The British army under the command of General consisted, after the arrival of General Floyd, of thirty- ousand, five hundred, and fifty-five fighting men, of whom housand, seven hundred, and four were Europeans. The 's infantry were three thousand, six hundred, and twenty- nd his cavalry about six thousand. In all, the allied encamped before the capital of Mysor, consisted of forty housand, one hundred, and seventy six fighting men; a er nearly equal to the total military field establishment of te Tippu Sultaun.'

army of Bombay composed a part of the above force, onsisted of 6420 fighting men, of whom 1617 were eans, under the command of Lieutenant General James . 'It marched from Cananore on the 21st February, d at the head of the Poodicherrum Ghaut on the 25th of me month, and took post at Sedapoor and Sedaseer on d March, for the protection of large supplies of grain ther articles, which had been collected at Verajunderpet, district of Coorga. The Bombay troops were ordered cupy those positions until the approach of the Madras towards Seringapatam, when the junction of both armies be effected.'—Four days after its arrival in this position, ombay army was attacked by Tippu Sultaun, before it eached his frontier. His force consisted of 11,800 of his oldiers; and, from the dispersed situation of the British npment, the attack was sustained by a body not exceed- 000 men; yet the enemy was repulsed, and thrown into disorder, before General Stuart could collect the whole divided troops. The Rajah of Coorga, whose family alternately been the victims of the bigotry, the barbarity,

or the ambition of the Mysor tyrant, was in the British ca
during the engagement; and his letter to the Gover
General, in which he describes the battle, and compares it w
the fabled exploits of the heroes sung in the Puranas, is
affecting composition, when the situation of the writer is c
sidered.

These two armies still occupied the same ground, when
Sultaun received intimation of General Harris having ente
Mysor from the east; and immediately withdrawing his forc
he proceeded to make head against the most threatening dang
Within a mile of the village of Malavelly, his army was
covered, occupying the surrounding heights. Here an enga
ment took place, which was terminated by the retreat of
Sultaun; and after this the British troops experienced
farther molestation, till they took their ground for the constr
tion of batteries before the walls of Seringapatam. Notwi
standing the interruptions which these works received fr
the occasional efforts of the besieged, a practicable breach w
effected on the 3d of May; and on the next day the city w
taken by assault.

' General Baird now proceeded to search the palace, accompan

dably from random shot; a circumstance, we may venture to
ince, unprecedented.'

the sons of Tippu, excepting Abdul Khalic, the eldest,
found in the palace; and he and the surviving officers
dered on the next day. The obsequies of the late Sultaun
superintended by the Cazi of the city. 'The bier was
rted by the attendants of the palace, preceded by two
anies of European grenadiers, and followed by an equal
er. Abdul Khalic rode immediately behind the bier,
panied by the Killadar, and other Mussulmen on foot.
Cazi chanted verses from the Coran, which were re-
l by the attendannts. The streets, through which the
sion passed, were lined with inhabitants; many of whom
ated themselves before the body, and expressed their
by loud lamentations.'

us fell Tippu Sultaun, in the fifty-first year of his age.
rofound policy and warlike genius of his father had been
adily conceded to the son, by public opinion, both in
e and in India; for, if we except undaunted valour, it
e difficult to discern, in the character of this Prince,
her qualities required by his station. Had his turbulent
been capable of repose, the usurped throne of Mysor,
er with the valuable acquisitions added to it by Hyder
om the territories of the neighbouring states, might have
nded to his posterity for many generations; and a Moham-
n dynasty might have been perpetuated, to the exclusion
native princes. The military system of Hyder consisted
r-running the territories of his enemies with innumerable
of marauding cavalry, desolating their countries, and
ng general engagements, unless with manifest advantage;
ing loaded with spoil, to recommence the attack in an-
quarter. The son, on the contrary, waited with sur-
g apathy till the enemy entered his own dominions; and
ever Lord Cornwallis discovered that, by neglecting his
uvres and marching directly for his capital, an engage-
must unavoidably ensue, the success of the campaign de-
d only on chusing the proper season for its commence-

ippu Sultaun appears to have been born in the year 1749.
ature was about five feet, eight inches high; he had a short
square shoulders, and was rather corpulent; his limbs were
particularly his feet and hands; he had large full eyes, small
eye brows, and an aquiline nose; his complexion was
, and the general expression of his countenance not void of
r.'

The character of Tippu seems to have been strongly tinctured with superstition; and doubtless many of his most barbarous actions were performed with the view of gaining proselytes to the Moslem faith. From a register of his dreams, which he kept, some curious extracts are exhibited in this work:—it is almost superfluous to state, that their interpretation was uniformly favourable to the success of the business in which he was engaged at the time. We copy one as a sample:

'Second dream.

'At the capital on the night of Sunday, the following morning of which was Monday, the 2d of the month Zaukree, of the year of Sauz, 1225 from the birth of Mohammed, answering to the 3d of Jemadial Sani *, I had a dream. Methought that they brought and placed before me three silver trays of fresh dates, of the species called moist. The dates were each in length of the size of a span; they were fresh, and full of juice; and it was reported to me that they had been reared in the garden. At that moment I awoke; it was morning.

'Thus did the servant of God interpret this dream; that by the grace of the merciful God, the dominion of the three Cafers (infidels) shall fall into my hands.

'On the 3d of the above month, news arrived that Nizam Ali was dead.'

The three infidels, whose dominions he already possessed in his dreams, were the English, the Mahrattas, and the Nuab Nizam Ali Khan, who adheres to a different sect of Islamism from that which was professed by the Sultaun.—In Tippu's pocket-book, were found minuted a variety of pious ejaculations and reflections;—as, for example:——'Oh my soul! be thy devotion that of the heart, if thou wouldst seek God; for otherwise the Caaba, and the idol house, are both of stone.' —The Caaba is the sacred temple of Mecca; and the sentence signifies that it is the purity of the devotion offered in it, which exalts the Caaba above an idolatrous temple.

After the funeral of the Sultaun, the commissioners appointed to superintend the conquered countries met in Seringapatam; and their first measure was to settle pensions on the officers of distinction, who still survived the overthrow of the government under which they had acted.

'All the Sirdars named under the foregoing heads having, by appointment, attended the commissioners, were received, according to the classes into which they had been previously arranged, and made acquainted with the powers entrusted to the commissioners, and with

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* It must be observed that Tippu had changed the name of the Mohammedan months, and altered the æra from the flight of the prophet, to that of his birth.

the resolutions which under those powers they had adopted. This communication was received by every individual with very lively sensations of gratitude, and in several instances, of wonder. Many of them expressed the greatest astonishment at the unparralleled condescension and generosity of the Company's government, in manifesting so much consideration for persons who had so recently borne arms against them, and who could not assert any claim to their favour or protection.'

These measures produced the most salutary effect in tranquillizing the minds of the principal Mohammedans remaining in Mysor. The restoration of the Hindu family, who filled the throne of Mysor till deposed by Hyder, though not recognized as an act of indispensable justice, was recommended by every motive of political expediency: but it was considered as a delicacy due to the situation of Tippu's sons, to take no steps for that purpose while they remained in the capital.

'The fortress of Vellor had been prepared for the reception of the Princes; and Lieutenant Colonel Doveton, an officer in all respects well qualified for the charge, was appointed to the command. He was also entrusted with the payment of the stipends allotted to both families (those of Hyder and of Tippu; the stipends amounting to about 80,000l. per annum); and was directed by the Governor General to spare no reasonable expence in providing for their accommodations, on a scale suitable to their former rank and expectations. Lieutenant Colonel Doveton met the Princes beyond Ryacatah, and conducted them to Vellor, where they arrived on the 12th July. They expressed their satisfaction in the accommodations provided for them, declaring them to be, which was actually the case, far better than those to which they had been accustomed.'

The sixteenth chapter contains an historical account of the Rajahs of Mysor. Colonel Beatson begins by animadverting on a passage in Mr. Grant's "*Historical and Political View of the Decan,*" a work replete with solid information; and the Colonel does not appear to discover that his own statement is in no respect different from that of Mr. Grant: probably from not adverting to this circumstance, that the Hindu monarchy of Bijanagur, after the capture of their capital, were termed the Rajahs of Anagoondi. Mr. Grant states, in perfect consistence with every historical document, that, when the empire of Bijanagur was overthrown in 1565, the governors of the distant provinces became independent; and such was the origin of Mysor:—but, says Colonel Beatson:

'We find that, in the year 1600, Raj Worriar, (it should be Udiar, and signifies that the family came from Utdesa, vulg. Orixa) was a petty poligar of Mysor, on which depended thirty-one mousas, or principal villages, exclusive of Mysor. At that period, Mysor was tributary to the Rajah of Chickraipatam, the capital of a small

Hindu soubahship, under the Rajah, or Emperor of Anagoondi. The Rajah, named Sri Ranga Rail, died in 1610 without issue, and Raj Worriar of Mysor, being esteemed for his good character and abilities, was nominated to the succession of the soubahdarry of Chickroupatam, by a decree of the reigning Rajah of Anagoondi.'

Nothing can be more obviously improper than applying the term of Subah to the possessions of a Hindu Prince, who knew of no such designation: but the whole resolves itself into this, that Chickraipatam, (it should be Chucrapatana, the circular city,) was the residence of the provincial governor, at that period; and that the authority of the representative of the antient monarchs was allowed to regulate a disputed succession; or, more probably, called in to justify possession. After these explanations, Col. Beatson will perceive nothing incompatible in the two narratives.

The descendants of Raj Worriar confirmed their power and extended their territories. His son, Siama Raja, first built a small fort on the island of Seringapatam, and added to the pagoda of Sri Ranga Swami. In fact, the city and island derived their name from the temple of the goddess Sriranga, (the

Dallaway, so celebrated in the wars of the Carnatic. From that period, the Rajahs appear to have enjoyed only a nominal authority; and the real power was seized from the hands of the Dallaway by Hyder Ali, in the year 1759. At each demise, a new Rajah was appointed from the same family, till the death of another Siama Rajah, in 1796, when Tippu Sultaun deemed it superfluous to continue the ceremony of installation. The only child of that prince, named Crisna Rajah Udiar, then but five years of age, was selected by the Marquis Wellesley to succeed to the dominions of his ancestors.

> 'The necessary preparations having been made, the members of the commission, accompanied by Mir Alum (general of the Nizam's forces) and his son Mir Dawran, escorted by his Majesty's 12th regiment, and a detachment of cavalry, proceeded on the morning of the 30th of June to the old town of Mysor. Soon after the Commissioners entered the building, the young Rajah, attended by all the male part of his family, by Purnea, (Tippu's minister of finance,) and a vast concourse of Hindoos, arrived. He was received at the entrance by the Commissioners; and Lieut. Gen. Harris, as senior member of the commission, and Mir Allum, advanced to meet him. Each taking a hand of the young Rajah, they led him to the musnud, on which they placed him, under a royal salute from the fort of Seringapatam, and three vollies of musquetry from the troops who were present; and the Commander in Chief then delivered to the Rajah, the seal and signet of the Rauj. The deportment of the young Prince during the ceremony was highly proper, and free from those symptoms of restraint and alarm which he had manifested at the first interview.
>
> 'It was a pleasing circumstance to observe, that many of the principal Sirdars of the late Tippu Sultaun, who had benefited by the liberal arrangements of the Governor General, appeared at this ceremony without invitation; and the joy manifested by the numerous Hindoos, who attended on the occasion, may more easily be imagined than described.'

It was not, however, intended to transfer to the young Rajah the whole of Tippu's possessions, much of which had never been ruled by his ancestors. The partition treaty allots the maritime country of Canara and Bednor to the Company, with the addition of Coimbator, Wymaud, and the island of Seringapatam. These were valued in a schedule delivered to the allies in 1792, by the Sultaun, at about 250,000l. per ann.; and by a subsidiary treaty with the Rajah, the Company engage to defend his territories, for which he stipulates to pay about 300,000l. The advantages, then, accruing to the Company in the first instance, may be estimated at 500,000l. per ann. after having deducted the provision for the maintenance of Tippu's family, at Vellor. A tract of equal value was assigned to the Nuab Nizam Ali Khan; and, though the Mahrattas had not afforded their co-operation in the prosecution of hostilities, their interests were not overlooked in the division.

This copious analysis will afford our readers a distinct view of the subjects comprized in the present work; and the numerous extracts will exemplify its style, which is throughout unaffected and perspicuous.

ART. II. *Facts and Observations tending to shew the Practicability and Advantage to the Individual and the Nation, of producing in the British Isles Clothing Wool, equal to that of Spain:* together with some Hints towards the Management of fine-woolled Sheep. By Caleb Hillier Parry, M. D. F. R. S. &c. &c. 4to. pp. 93. 4s. sewed. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

INGENIOUS and philosophic men not only elucidate every subject which they sedulously discuss, but even in their recreations and relaxations they manifest the advantages of a clear and penetrating intellect. Superior to the narrow principle of living merely for themselves, both their serious studies and their occasional avocations are animated by generous sentiments;

Of late, the questions have been much agitated, whether it be possible for us to produce wool equal to that which we import from Spain; and whether, supposing this to be possible, it would be politic to make the attempt? Dr. Parry enters the lists to maintain both the practicability and the expediency of such a measure; undertaking to prove that we have it in our power to produce and to keep up a breed of sheep, whose wool shall be equal to that of Spain; and that it would be advantageous to the farmer and to the public in general, to cherish such a breed in the British Isles. Something must be conceded to partiality and something to zeal in maintaining a favorite hypothesis: but there is so much good sense in Dr. P.'s discussion, and his doctrine is so well supported by experiments, that no one can regard the work before us as a mere *hobby-horsical* effusion.

For good reasons, Dr. Parry was induced to chuse what is called the *Ryeland* breed as the basis of an attempt to improve British wool by an admixture with the Spanish race. He commenced his experiments in the year 1792, by sending four ewes to the Spanish ram belonging to the Bath Agricultural Society, and two to another belonging to the late Earl Bathurst, both given by the King. In this kind of practice he persevered: but his progress was slow; and it was not till within the last four years that he was able to employ a large number of ewes. He thus describes the breed which he has obtained:

'The Spanish rams are horned; the ewes generally hornless. In this mixed breed, even in the first descent from the Ryeland ewe, the rams have usually horns. Some few of them, however, have none; and the ewes, as might naturally be expected from both parents, are hornless. As far down as the fourth generation, all the rams are horned. The horns are large; and after having made about half a turn, or somewhat more, nearly in one plane, project spirally forwards and outwards.

'These sheep are entirely enveloped in wool, which grows under the jaws, down the forehead to the eyes, under the belly, and down the legs to the very feet. It is astonishing to see how thickly it covers their skin. It will scarcely give way to even pressure of the hand, but yields as it were by starts, like the close short hair of an extremely fine clothes-brush. In washing them, the water penetrates to the skin with great difficulty.

'I will venture to affirm, that the fleece is heavier in proportion to the carcase than that of any other known breed in Europe. In the *raw* state, (that is, unwashed on the sheep's back, or afterwards) the fleeces of the two-shear ewes average 4½ lbs. avoirdupoise: and the weight of the living ewe being about 60 lbs. the proportion of wool to that of carcase is about one to twelve and a half. The fleece of a fat wether of the same age will be from 5 to 7 lbs. From a ram of 70½ lbs, living weight, in the year 1797, I clipped 8 lbs. 2 oz. of raw wool.'

The length of the *staple*, (as it is called,) or filaments, is on an average about three inches and a quarter; and the uniformity of fineness in different parts of the fleece is such, that Dr. P. fears that he shall not make some persons believe his bare assertions.

'The fact, however, is, that in shewing the specimens cut by myself from those different parts of the same animal, which are generally considered as producing the best and worst wool, I mean the shoulder and the breech, I have never met with three persons who could agree which was the finest. Many good judges have actually decided in favour of the latter. This is a curious and important distinction between the Spanish and English breeds.'

It is added that 'this wool contains a great deal of *yolk*, or oil, which is apt to entangle the dust of the field, so as often to form a kind of mat; it is however wholly free from *stichel* hairs or kemps.' Dr. Parry says that his breed is also a very healthy one.

After having thus stated the qualities of his wool, the Doctor proceeds to combat the opinions of those writers (see an "Address to the Woollen-Manufacturers of Great Britain," and "an Address to Lord Somerville") who have asserted that the essential properties of Spanish wool depend on circumstances of climate and management, which it is out of our power to obtain. He does more than this; he shews not only that wool equal to that of Spain has been obtained in various climates, but also that 'the nature of the food, whether hay, grass, chicory, Scotch cabbage, or oil-cakes, in indefinite proportions, given so as to maintain a certain quantity of flesh, makes no obvious difference in the fineness of the wool.' Such has been the result of experiments made in feeding his own flock; and so confident is he of the fact, that, forgetting the couplet in Hudibras,

> "Quoth he, I've heard old cunning stagers
> Say fools, for arguments, use wagers;"

he proposes to stake any sum, from one guinea to twenty, that he produces from one of his rams (which has been fed on Scotch cabbage, hay, and oil-cake) a sample of wool as fine as any Spanish wool; and, proceeding in the true Newmarket style, he says, 'I will afterwards *take two to one* of the same amount that I shew what shall be judged finer than the same quantity of Spanish wool taken together out of any bag which shall be imported.' Whether this bet be accepted or not, we trust that the clothiers will do justice to Dr. Parry's wool, and not suffer prejudice to operate in this case.

It may be said that, allowing Dr. Parry's breed to be excellent on account of their wool, this advantage is more than counterbalanced by their defect of carcase. It is allowed, indeed,

deed, that they are small; and that, in form, they do not correspond with the present fashionable ideas of beauty. The carcases of the wethers are stated to weigh, when tolerably fat, from 12 to 15 lbs. a quarter, and the ewes from 10 to 12 lbs.; and Dr. Parry asserts that he has constantly had this mutton killed for his own table, that the flavour was excellent, and that, from its size and taste, it has always sold in the market for the highest price. In order to induce farmers to cultivate his breed, he observes that, from experiments made to ascertain which of six sorts of sheep would pay most in flesh and wool, on the same original value of carcase, for the same quantity of food in the same time, the advantage in both cases appeared to be in favour of the smallest breed. For other particulars, we must refer the reader to the various statements made in behalf of Dr. P.'s flock. In point of fleece, it appears to us to deserve attention; and, considering the circumstances of Europe, it may merit some reflection whether we ought not to endeavour to secure to ourselves a supply of fine wool, beyond the reach of external accident. As we have a large quantity of land, which, though it will not pay for cultivation by the plough, will support this small breed of sheep, would it not be the best application of such land to stock it with these fine fleeced animals? Dr. Parry conceives that there can be but one objection to the general adoption of this plan; viz. the difficulty of obtaining the value of the wool. This difficulty, however, he thinks may be vanquished; particularly by *permitting the exportation of wool*; a measure which he regards as highly advisable. 'I have considered (says he) this subject for many years as deeply as from analogy I am able; and I cannot avoid concluding, that the unqualified prohibition of the export of British wool from Great Britain, is highly unworthy of that sound policy which has generally marked the commercial regulations of this enlightened country.'

To many circumstances of *management*, we cannot attend: but it may be proper to admit the hint with which the pamphlet concludes:

> 'I must be permitted to give one caution to gentlemen and others inclined to form fine-woolled flocks by the introduction of Spanish rams. I have bred many hundreds of these sheep, and I can from experience inform them, that they will be most egregiously deceived, if they expect to produce fine wool by one or two crosses with those rams, from any breed of ewes in this kingdom. Certain persons in Herefordshire tried (I believe) one cross only, and were then satisfied that they had made the experiment fairly, and were perfectly masters of the subject. Let no man hereafter flatter himself in this respect, till his sheep have, *at least*, five-sixths of the Spanish blood. He may in one or two descents improve the quality, and greatly increase the

quantity, of his wool; but he will not, at that period of the experiment, bring it to a state in which it will in fineness admit of any competition with the Spanish.'

Though Dr. Parry modestly apologizes for haste, and hints at probable inaccuracy, the general question is discussed with much ability. He appears to have ascertained some important facts, and he has recorded them in the most clear and satisfactory manner.

ART. III. *Account of Antiquities discovered at Ribchester*, in a Letter from Charles Townley, Esq. F.R.S. and F.S.A. to the Rev. John Brand, M. A. Secretary to the Society of Antiquaries. Folio. 1l. 1s. Sheets. White, Robson, &c. 1800.

DURING the summer of 1796, as a boy was at play in a hollow by the side of a road near Ribchester, the antient *Coccium* of the Itinerary of Antoninus, his hand accidentally rubbed against a bronze helmet; which being extracted, other articles were discovered, that had been deposited in a heap of red sand nine feet below the surface. These were purchased by Mr. Townley in December 1797; and in the following month he communicated to the Society of Antiquaries the met and mask were designed to represent the goddess Isis in r threefold capacity of generating, preserving, and destroy- , we cannot say that we regard his conjectures as verities, ugh we admire the ingenuity and learning which he has ployed in their support. If all the figures in the diadem be thological, it is fair to suppose that those on the top of the lmet, which are the most numerous, are of the same cha- ter, and have a particular reference to the fabulous history d attributes of Isis. Mr. Townley, however, does not tend that these have any mystical signification: but he sses them very concisely, observing that 'that there seems thing particularly remarkable in the combatants which are presented on the scull-piece.' Why may not the other corations be considered merely as ornaments, without each ferring to the particular mysteries of paganism? Mr. T. may ve rightly explained the purpose for which this relict of tiquity was constructed: but all beyond this is conjecture; the usual resource,' as Mr. T. himself observes at the con- usion of his letter, 'in the dark paths of researches into tiquity.'

In the Archaeologia, vol. xiii. p. 223, are some ingeni- s remarks on the Ribchester antiquities, by the Rev. Mr. eston, which we shall notice when we give an account of at volume,—now under consideration.

RT. IV. *A Treatise on the Commerce and Police of the River Thames:* containing an Historical View of the Trade of the Port of London; and suggesting Means for preventing the Depredations thereon, by a Legislative system of River Police. With an Account of the Functions of the various Magistrates and Corporations exercising Jurisdiction on the River; and a general View of the Penal and Remedial Statutes connected with the Subject. By P. Colquhoun, LL.D. 8vo. pp. 676. 10s. 6d. Boards. Mawman. 1800.

To guard and protect the commerce of a large capital, from the many depredations and frauds to which it must be nstantly exposed, is an object of great public interest. The il, perhaps, is of such a nature that it will not admit a rfect remedy: but much may doubtless be effected by tablished system, executed with methodical vigilance and tivity. Dr. Colquhoun observes;—'that it is a matter of the ghest importance to guard the morals of the numerous asses who are employed, and by whose labours the extensive ade of the river Thames is carried on, is not only evident om the unexampled magnitude of this trade; but from a view of the number of individuals (120,000) who compose these classes.'

The treatise begins with a brief history of the commerce of the river Thames, from the reign of Queen Elizabeth to our own time, including a general view of its present state, with an account of shipping, &c. The statements given contain much information, but they are not all clear, nor explicitly detailed; which circumstance sometimes renders it necessary to consult three or four tables, in order to rightly comprehend the meaning of one. The sum total of the value of the exports and imports, with the value of the British shipping on the Thames, 'taken from authorities and documents applicable to the year ending the 5th January, 1798,' the author estimates at seventy millions. 'When to this we add the coals, and goods of all kinds, constantly exposed in craft; ships of war, gunboats, and transports; the hoys for conveying naval, victualling, ordnance and military stores, to and from the public Arsenals at Deptford, Woolwich, Sheerness, and Chatham, to ships of war and transports on the river; and to and from the dock-yards at Portsmouth and Plymouth: all which must, in the course of a year, amount to at least five millions; the whole will present an aggregate of seventy-five millions formed, nor altogether inefficacious. It appears that the West India merchandise has suffered by pillage in a much greater proportion than any other property on the river: the estimated amount of loss in that branch being 232,000l. on 11,013,000l. the total value of the exports and imports to and from the West Indies in one year.

To give our readers some idea of the nature and extent of this system of river-robbery, we shall copy the author's arrangement of the different sets of delinquents, and *parts* of his statements under each head: we cannot afford room for the whole:

'I. River Piracy.—This species of depredation was carried on by the most desperate and depraved class of the fraternity of nautical vagabonds, aided by receivers (equally noxious and hostile to the interest of society) who kept old iron and junk shops, in places adjacent to the river, ever ready to deposit and to conceal the nocturnal plunder of these hostile marauders, who were generally armed and equipped with boats, either kept or stolen for the particular object they had in view.

'It was the practice of these free-booters, to select dark nights for committing depredations; having previously reconnoitered the river during the day, for the purpose of marking the particular ships, vessels, and craft, most likely to afford a prolific harvest, either from the nature of the merchandise, stores, or materials, which were accessible, or from the circumstance of their being without the protection of a nightly watch.—

'Well authenticated instances have been adduced of their cutting bags of cotton, and other valuables, from the quarters of ships on their first arrival; and even of their weighing anchors, and getting clear off with these heavy materials, together with the cables and every portable article upon the deck of a ship: one instance in particular occurred a few years ago, where an American and a Guernsey ship were plundered in this manner, by the actual removal both of anchors and cabels, ultimately in the view of the masters of the vessels, who were alarmed time enough to get upon deck, to learn the fact from the river pirates themselves; who, as they rowed off, told them that they had got their anchors and cables, at the same time wishing them a good morning.'

'II. Night Plunderers.—This class is chiefly composed of gangs of the most dissolute of the watermen, who prefer idleness to labour, and indulge in every kind of low extravagance. Their depredations are chiefly confined to unprotected lighters, which are generally pointed out to them by watchmen who are associates in the same criminal pursuits, and share in the booty. On discovering by this means where plunder is to be obtained, their practice has been to provide themselves with a lug-boat, seized on for the purpose, to proceed to these unprotected lighters at midnight; and to remove such parts of their cargoes as are accessible and portable: this they convey immediately to the place settled by the receiver, or criminal purchaser, and there deposit the spoil.'

'III. NIGHT PLUNDERERS, DENOMINATED LIGHT-HORSEMEN.—Among the various classes of depredators on the West-India trade in the port of London, those denominated *Light Horsemen* seem to have by far the most pernicious, inasmuch as the pillage they obtained, by the variety of their artful practices, was generally extensive and valuable.

'The receivers who resided in the vicinity of the river, on both sides, were the chief leaders in this peculiar system of plunder; and it was always carried on by the connivance of the mate and revenue officers, in consequence of a preconcerted plan, and agreement to pay them a certain sum of money, for the liberty of opening and removing from such casks and packages, as were accessible, as much sugar, coffee, and other articles, as could be conveyed away in four or five hours during the dead of night. - For such a licence to plunder, from 20 to 30 guineas per night were usually paid to the mate and revenue officers, who generally went to bed, while the mischief was going forward, that they might not see it.

'These infamous proceedings were carried on according to a regular system.—The gangs, denominated *Light Horsemen*, were generally composed of one or more receivers, together with coopers, watermen, and lumpers, who were all necessary in their different occupations, to the accomplishment of these iniquitous designs.—They went on board completely prepared with *iron crows*, *adzes*, and other utensils, to open and again head-up the casks—with shovels to take out the sugar, and a number of bags made to contain 100lb. each.—These bags were denominated *black strap*; having been previously dyed black, to prevent their being seen in the night, when stowed in the bottom of a wherry.

'The different members of a gang had each a peculiar province assigned.—The receivers generally furnished the money necessary to bribe the officers and mate in the first instance, and also provided the *black strap*. The watermen procured as many boats as were wanted. The lumpers unstowed the casks in the hold. The coopers took out the heads, and all hands afterwards assisted in filling the bags, dispatching one boat after another to an appointed place, and making the best use of the infamous licence they had purchased, in removing as large a quantity of property as could be carried off by the utmost exertions of excessive labour; which seldom amounted to less than the value of from 150l. to 200l. a night.'—

'This dreadful system of nightly robbery was not confined to sugar alone. Wherever coffee made a part of the cargo, the plunder of that article, from its being more accessible, was always enormous.

'Rum also was pillaged in considerable quantities.—This was obtained by means of a regular system, immediately applicable to the nature of the article.—*Skins* and *large bladders, with wooden nozles*, were secretly conveyed on board.—A bribe was given, as in the case of sugar and coffee, to the mate and revenue officers for a licence to draw off a certain quantity from each cask, for which purpose a pump, usually denominated a *jigger*, was previously provided, and also *tin tubes* calculated to render the booty accessible in every situation.—

By such devices the skins and bladders were filled, and large quantities removed to the houses of the receivers during the night. All the ships thus circumstanced, were denominated *Game Ships.*'

'IV. Heavy Horsemen, or Day Plunderers.—Under the description of *Heavy Horse*, is comprised that class of labourers called lumpers, who are chiefly employed in the lading and discharging of ships and vessels in the river Thames.—Many of them are provided with an under dress, denominated a *Jemmy*, with pockets before and behind: also with long narrow bags or pouches, which, when filled, were lashed to their legs and thighs, and concealed under wide trowsers.—By these means they were enabled to carry off sugars, coffee, cocoa, ginger, pimento, and every other article which could be obtained by pillage, in considerable quantities.—And as the mistaken parsimony of ship owners and ship masters, in not victualling these lumpers on board, furnished them with an excuse to go on shore, in many instances, three times a day, they generally endeavoured to be completely laden each time.'

'V. Journeymen Coopers.—The labour of this class of mechanics being necessary to repair casks and packages, which have suffered injury in the stowage; about four hundred are supposed to be employed in different vessels under discharge, when the port is crowded. A large proportion of these men were accustomed to convey on shore considerable quantities of *sugar*, *coffee*, and other articles, on leaving West-India ships after they quitted work in the evening; and they have been even known to break hogsheads wilfully to obtain plunder, when it was not accessible from the general bad condition of the cargo.'

'VI. Watermen.—Wherever Watermen assist in smuggling transactions, it is well known that the payment they receive is far beyond what is obtained for ordinary labour.—The same is the case with respect to articles pilfered, where they are not themselves immediately concerned.—Whether prompted by idleness, prodigality, or avarice, a certain class, who are denominated *Game Watermen*, prefer this species of employment to all others.—Their system has been to begin by offering their services as soon as a ship arrives, to smuggle the private adventures of the officers and crew.—An acquaintance by this means takes place, and hints are given that they will afford equal facilities in conveying on shore, and also in finding purchasers for, any part of the cargo that can be obtained. Thus encouraged, the crews of the vessels are induced to follow the evil examples before them, in adding to the number of the plunderers.—And where watermen become their agents, these latter generally enjoy a full moiety of the profit.—

'In the various ramifications of this extensive and nefarious system, the next in order of the criminal auxiliaries were a class of low and miserable beings, who are accustomed to grub in the river at low water for old ropes, metals, and coals; and from that circumstance generally were known by the appellation of

'VII. Mud-larks.—In all cases where any West India or other vessel under discharge was known to afford a resource for pillage, and was from that circumstance denominated a *game ship*, these

grubbers

grubbers were accustomed to prowl about in the mud under her bow and quarters, for the purpose of receiving from the lumpers, and others who were employed in the delivery, bags and handkerchiefs of sugar, coffee, and other articles, which they conveyed to the houses and shops of the receivers, according to the plan which had been preconcerted by the confederates in this general conspiracy.—And as the receptacles for the plunder, conveyed in this manner, were seldom at any great distance from the river, they were enabled to make many trips in the course of a tide.—It has been also a practice with these mudlarks to prowl about in the vicinity of the dock gates, under pretence of grubbing for nails; but the principal object is to receive sheets of copper, and copper nails, which are thrown to them by artificers and labourers on the stages, with whom they divide the booty.'—

'VIII. RAT-CATCHERS.—Among the various classes of delinquents, who have contributed to the removal of plunder from ships and vessels in the river Thames, are to be included a set of individuals who pretend to follow the profession of *Rat-Catchers.*—Many ships being infested with rats, recourse is had to persons who pretend to have a knowledge of the means of destroying them.—They are permitted with this view to go on board in the night to set their traps, and afterwards to visit them at such hours as they choose to prescribe to themselves.—In this situation they become useful auxiliaries to lumpers and others, who have concealed plunder in the hold, until a convenient opportunity occurs for removing it, which they generally are enabled to accomplish without suspicion.'—

'IX. GAME LIGHTERMEN.—This class of aquatic labourers are styled *journeymen.*—In addition to the pillage which they were accustomed to obtain in the lighters, in their passage from the ships to the quays, and afterwards while they lay for their turn to discharge, they were in the habit of acting as auxiliaries to the mates, lumpers, and others, by concealing in their lockers, *sugar, coffee, and other articles*, comprising part of the general pillage, which they conveyed on shore, in consequence of a previous agreement to receive a certain share of the booty.—The capacity of the lockers, which are generally about five feet long, and from three to four feet wide, and calculated to hold considerable quantities of goods, not only enables these lightermen to remove bulky and valuable articles, whether stolen or smuggled, but also to conceal them instantly from public view; by which means whole bags of *coffee, ginger, pimento*, and other articles, including large quantities of *sugar*, have been frequently conveyed unnoticed from West-India ships. The stolen property which was thus concealed and locked up, generally remained until the lighter was discharged of her cargo, and afterwards, until removed to the usual station for empty craft, off the custom-house quay. Suspicion being then at rest, means were found by the assistance of skiffs to land the goods, and convey them to the houses of the receivers.'—

'X. SCUFFLE-HUNTERS.—These are literally composed of that lowest class of the community, who are vulgarly denominated the *Tag-Rag* and *Bobtail*, 'When goods are shipping or landing upon the quays, they are ever ready to offer their assistance to work as porters by the day or the hour, and they generally come prepared with long aprons, not so much as a convenient habiliment to enable them the better to perform their labour, as to furnish them with the means of suddenly concealing what they pilfer, with which, when obtained, they generally disappear.'—

'It is to be lamented, that in developing this wide extended system of pillage, the delinquency which attaches to commercial property, must be still farther followed, even to

THE WAREHOUSES.

'The plunder in the warehouses is carried on to a very great extent, and the chief instruments are the journeymen coopers, and, in some instances, the gangsmen: as often as these coopers attend for the purpose of drawing samples, they are followed by a person who is called a sweeper, whose duty it is to sweep the sugar from the top of each hogshead, from which samples have been drawn: Each sample generally consists of four or five pounds of sugar, which is carried off by the journeymen, supposed to the house of his master, while nearly an equal quantity generally remains on the head of each hogshead, from which samples have been drawn: this is swept into a basket, and when full conveyed to a general receiving hogshead, called *a devil*, which is placed for that purpose in one corner of the warehouse, and to which every hogshead or cask deposited in the warehouse is said to contribute more or less—when full, this devil-hogshead is removed to the purchaser, and replaced by another.—There is said to be generally one, and sometimes two of these receiving hogsheads in each warehouse. If it be discovered, that any one or more hogsheads weigh one quarter or half an hundred above the landing weight, the overplus is taken out and deposited in the devil hogshead.'

It is lamentable that the ingenuity of man should be exerted in so many ways to defraud his fellow creatures; and that the resources and the power of governments should be so much occupied in the prevention of crimes, when the simple operation of CONSCIENCE would effect all that is desirable! Or, setting aside all abstract ideas of right and wrong, will it never be generally believed that, ultimately, *Honesty is the best policy?* an axiom which will always stand the test of experiment.

In addition to a description of the new system of marine police, Dr. Colquhoun has given a general statement of the various authorities intitled to exercise jurisdiction on or near the river Thames. He does not consider the corporation of London as good conservators of the river. 'The exclusive jurisdiction of the corporation,' he says, 'is a burthen to themselves and an evil to the community.' The observations on this head appear to merit the notice of the parties concerned, who are probably the most competent to decide on the justice of them.

This curious volume contains also remarks on several maritime affairs not connected with river police. The most important regulations in the new system of marine police are those for registering and employing watchmen, and lumpers to clear ships, under the control of the civil officers. The author complains that several ship owners and masters, prejudiced against the new plan, would not engage with the registered lumpers under the regulations of the marine police office: but we think that, for very important reasons, the employ or refusal of them should remain perfectly optional with ship-owners and masters. Were it otherwise, these lumpers, finding themselves privileged exclusively, would probably study the means of becoming greater plunderers than ever: but, while others may be procured, the merchants and ship owners will not be so much at their mercy; and there will be, between these and other lumpers, a natural competition for character.

By the prevention of depredations, the author estimates the saving to the revenue, under the establishment of the marine police, at not less than 150,000l per annum. If such be the case, his proposition to raise, by a tonnage duty, 'a sum not exceeding 10,000l. annually' for the support of the establishment, can scarcely be necessary; since, with so considerable a saving, government would be well enabled to supply the requisite 'pecuniary energy.'

The appendix contains copies of the instructions given to the officers, master-lumpers, and others employed under the marine police institution. These appear to be drawn up carefully and methodically.

Of the former productions of this very persevering and vigilant magistrate, respecting the Police of the Metropolis, the reader will find accounts in our xxth vol. N. S. p. 408. and xxxiiid vol. p. 349.

Art. V. *The History of the Campaigns of 1796 and 1797, in Germany and Italy; and of the Campaigns of 1799 in Germany, Switzerland, Italy, and Holland.* Translated from the French. 8vo. 5 Vols. 2l. 17s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1800, 1801.

The first volume of this work, having appeared some time since before the public, has already passed our ordeal *; and in the additional volumes, the diligence, the accuracy, and the ability, which we formerly commended, again require our acknowlegement. The professional man, the amateur, and the politician, will carefully turn over these pages, and will confess their obligations to the author. They will rise from the perusal of them not merely instructed in the details of the horrible struggle which has been, and still continues to be the scourge of so many countries, but furnished with more correct ideas of the geography of several parts of Europe, and possessed of a deeper insight into the views of its principal cabinets.

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* See Rev. vol. xxiii. N. S. p. 378.

The Generals Bonaparte, Moreau, Massena, and Lecourbe, are here catechized; and they may learn, if they will consult this historian, to profit by past mistakes. We do not dispute his competence to the province which he has here assumed; but we must observe that he is more bold in animadversion than the author of the *Précis des évènemens militaires*; an officer who is well known to possess the most eminent professional attainments. It may reasonably be supposed, however, that each of these writers has a bias, and their praises and censures must be considered accordingly. With respect to impartiality, the present author observes:

> 'He has had no other object and has no other pretension, than to furnish to the future historian a connected series of authentic materials; and meanwhile to present to the military man a subject of interest and instruction. This double object has imposed upon him the obligation of being strictly impartial. He flatters himself that he has been so in the statements of facts.—It would be vain to expect any greater degree of impartiality from writers contemporary with the French Revolution. Like the law of Solon, it has left no other alternative but that of being its partizan or its enemy. If sentiments adverse to it animate the heart and have guided the pen of the author, every thing induces him to believe that it was only by this means that he could anticipate the judgment of posterity.'

From this statement, it will be perceived that we must be contented if the principal facts be properly delineated in the picture; and that various tints in the colouring of the figures must occasionally be referred to the style of the artist.

As this author's details of warlike operations seldom differ from those which the public have already seen, we conceive that the selections most agreeable to our readers will consist of his reflections on events, and his accounts of the views of the several parties.

After having related Bonaparte's irruption into Germany in 1797, and his approach to Vienna, the historian considers the situation of the conqueror when he signed the preliminaries of peace, and the conduct of the Austrian Government in yielding to the impulses of fear and despondency:

> 'At the moment when Bonaparte signed the armistice, was he, or was he not, in a perilous situation?—Was he entitled to reap the fruits of his invasion, or to have been punished for daring to at-

tempt it? The latter of these alternatives shall be adopted without hesitation, and that for the following reasons.

‘ Bonaparte, when arrived at Judemburg, was more than 150 miles from the point from whence he set out, and there remained nearly as many for him to march before he found himself under the walls of Vienna, the object of his expedition *. The troops which had passed the Alps with him amounted to about 60,000 men. They occupied the banks of the Save, the Drave, and the Muehr; the extremity of the right was between Trieste and Fiume; that of the left was at the entrance of the valley of the Drave; the centre was at Judemburg, being thus considerably advanced before the two wings, but less before the right than the left; for this latter was, to speak properly, almost entirely behind him. It was in this whimsical and unexampled formation, required, indeed, by circumstances, that the French General was to continue his march towards Vienna. In casting one's eyes over the map, one sees that at every step that he would have taken, the line which he occupied on his left would have been prolonged; and that his right could not march at the same rate, and at the same distance from him, without leaving in its rear Croatia, as well as all the countries of the lower Save, and the lower Drave: he would then have been exposed on his left, or rather behind his left, to the Austrian troops, which were in the country of Saltzburg, and to those which would have come from upper Austria, or even from Bohemia; and behind his right, to all that

'Colonel Casimer, at the head of a corps of Croatians, had advanced between the sea and the French, and had recovered Trieste.'—

'Already, then, while Bonaparte was still near 120 miles from Vienna, and before he had obtained any signal advantage, two hostile corps had taken post in his rear, and were at a little distance from the defiles, by which he had entered Germany, and by which he kept up his communication with Italy.'

The writer fortifies his opinion by quoting those of Dumouriez and Carnot, and concludes by lamenting the timidity of the Court of Vienna; which deprived the Archduke 'of the opportunity of raising his own glory on the ruin of that of Bonaparte, and of becoming a second time the saviour of Germany.'

The manner in which Bonaparte was received at Paris, on concluding the peace of Campo Formio, is thus related:

'Bonaparte had disdained to remain at Rastadt longer than was sufficient for the exchange of the respective powers and ratifications, and proceeded to Paris to enjoy his triumph, and the popular acclamations which he supposed would be lavished on the conqueror of Italy, and the pacificator of Campo Formio, and to receive from the Directory the rewards to which he was no less entitled for the deliberations of his army in the late crisis, than for his victories. He was deceived in his expectations. The people, fallen into a state of apathy, and become strangers to the Republic since the last revolution, saw only in him an Aga of the Janissaries of the Triumvirate; and these, jealous of his glory and of the influence to which he might aspire, received him at the Luxemborg, as *Germanicus* was at the court of *Tiberius* after his triumphs, *brevi acceptus osculo*. After some hypocritical demonstrations, which imposed on no one, they gave him the command of the army of the west, which they had just decorated with the pompous title of the army of England; and the direction of citadel rafts, of insubmersible vessels, of balloons, and other magic machines, with which the journalists of the Directory menaced the coasts of proud Albion.

'Bonaparte seized the pretext to go and review his army, to withdraw from the equivocal and painful situation in which he found himself at Paris; but his restless and fiery spirit, greedy of renown, could not accommodate itself to the retreat to which he saw himself condemned. His glory was insensibly eclipsed in the idle obscurity in which the jealousy of the Directory made it necessary for them to place him: He thought himself too great to remain with safety in France, at least unless he consented to be too little for the high destinies which he thought himself called to fulfil.

'This was probably what first gave rise to the famous expedition to Egypt. The Directory, very glad to get rid of him, and of his faithful legions in Italy, thought itself too happy to find a pretext for sending him to a distance in the reduction of a new country, and in the hope of striking a sensible blow against Great-Britain.'

At the time of writing this second volume, the Emperor Paul was in no small degree the favourite of the author. Subsequent events have probably altered his opinion.

The IIId vol. relates the Campaign of 1799 in Germany and Switzerland, and opens with a statement of the forces of the contending parties on the renewal of hostilities in that year; from which it appears that a great superiority was in the hands of the Emperor of Germany.—In chap. x. we meet with an interesting detail of the projects, the measures, and the expectations of the French, and of their enemies, towards the middle of this year; which we had designed to extract, but we find it too extensive. The writer terminates it by observing that ' the courts of London and Petersburgh, spared neither efforts, trouble, nor sacrifices, in order to render this campaign decisive, and to compensate by the advantages which would result from it, for the torrents of blood which it cost Europe.' It seems, however, that the Austrian cabinet was not so vigorously disposed; and in the following chapter we find strong charges urged against the conduct of that government:

> ' It has been said in one of the preceding chapters, that it was generally expected, that after the conquest of Italy had been sufficiently secured, Marshal Suwarow would, at the head of a part of the victo-

than the result of compulsion, it might be in some measure justified by cogent reasons; and the loss of 20,000 men, which the Archduke had sustained in the departure of Generals Bellegarde and Haddick, had left him, if not at first, at least latterly, inferior to Massena. This consideration, joined to local difficulties, furnished arguments in favour of a temporizing conduct. When however the army of General Korsakow had arrived in Switzerland, when that General according to the orders of his Sovereign, and to the state of affairs, requested that an attack should be made, when in order to affect a compliance with his wishes, vain parade and demonstrations were made, it was from that time very evident, that Austria consulted neither the views nor the interests of her allies, and that they could not any longer depend upon her co-operation in the grand work with which they were desirous of crowning the campaign. This difference in the councils was naturally attended with divisions in the camps. The almost unavoidable rivalry between the troops of the two Emperors, between soldiers who had a character for superior bravery, and others, who during ten years had given exemplary proofs of their valour, whether in good or bad fortune, was too soon converted into open jealousy, and was not, as in Italy, restrained by a vigorous authority, and diverted by active operations and common success.'

In the subsequent details, also, of the reverses of Marshal Suworow in Switzerland, blame is attached to the Austrian Generals and Commissaries, who are said not to have fulfilled their promises of assistance to the Russians; in consequence of which, the affairs of the Allies assumed a very unfavourable aspect.

After having stated the faults of the Russian Generals Petrarch and Korsakow, in Switzerland, the author proceeds, in chap. xiv. to severely criticize the conduct of the victorious French General Massena; and he maintains that the very measures of that officer, which were crowned with conquest, are open to decided military reprobation:—while the highest praises are bestowed on the veteran Marshal Suworow, for the abilities, the resolution, and the heroism, which he manifested under the adversity that resulted from the errors of others. We should have quoted these passages, if they had not been too long for our limits, and if we had not been desirous of copying some of the reflections with which the author finishes this volume:

'Upon considering all that has been said, it will be observed that this campaign has occasioned no important change in the possession of territory; that during it, there has not been above three actions, to which the names of battles could be given; that there were but one siege, or rather blockade; and that the waste of human blood which it has occasioned, though considerable, has not been extraordinary; and that offering in these four points of view, which are the principal ones in every war, nothing remarkable, it seems at first sight, not to present any great interest to the historian. He will however give it not only a distinguished, but even a very particular place, for it has one very great characteristic feature, which as yet has only been hinted at, and which arises from the novelty and singularity of its partial theatre, Switzerland.—After having in the 14th century, thrown off the yoke of the house of Austria—in the 15th escaped from that of the house of Burgundy—in the 16th struggled against the house of Valois—and in the 17th contended successfully with that of Savoy,—this country, by the treaty of Munster, had its independency and its liberty confirmed, and had enjoyed, for above 150 years, these two precious political blessings. At peace with all its neighbours, religious disputes had troubled its domestic tranquillity, but these momentary divisions had been succeeded by most perfect harmony; and for fourscore years, no sound of war had been heard within the circuit of the great Alps. The tranquil destiny of this Republic was very remarkable, from the geographical situation of its territory, and the manners of its inhabitants. It is not a little singular, that surrounded as it is by France, Germany, and Italy, and being the shortest road of communication between the two former and the latter, Switzerland had never been the theatre of any of the wars, in which, since the middle of the 17th century, the houses of Austria and of Bourbon have disputed the possession of Italy. It is not less extraordinary that its inhabitants, educated from their infancy to the use of arms, and considering themselves during their whole life, as belonging to no other profession, should never have had occasion to use them for the interests of their country. The nature of the soil which offered no object for the ambition of their neighbours, and the composition of the government, which could give them no alarms, produced and preserved this phenomenon of a people never engaged in war, though always ready for it.

'This happy composition, formed by nature and by human wisdom, was destined to vanish before the French revolution.—The frankness and courage of the inhabitants of the Alps, defended them ill against the machiavelian machinations of the French.—A people of Republicans, was overcome by a people in revolution—A nation which knew how to enjoy liberty, was the victim of a nation which only knew how to abuse it—The country of William Tell fell under the yoke of the soldiers of Reubell.—It was from it, that they threatened Germany: it was therefore there, that its defenders were obliged to go to oppose them.'——

'If ever Switzerland has again the misfortune of becoming the seat of a great war, the positions of the two great vallies of the Grisons, of the Thur, of the Linth, of the Limmat, of Albis, of the Sihl, of Mutten, of Schagen, of the Reuss, of St. Gothard, and of Furca, all these capital positions, which have been tried by so many combats, and so many manœuvres, will become classic ground, and be rendered sacred in the eyes of military men. In future, those who wish to acquire a knowledge of mountain war, will study the attack of the Engadine, by General Lecourbe—the skilful recovery of the same country, by General Bellegarde—the attack of Luciensteig, by General Hotze—that of St. Gothard and of the valley of the Reuss, by General Haddick—the well concerted operations by which

which Lecourbe repossessed himself of the smaller cantons—the faults by which the Generals Korsakow and Petrarch lost, to the Allies, the possession of Switzerland—the rapid march of Marshal Suworow and the heroic efforts of his troops, who, coming in hopes of conquest, were obliged to conquer, in order to retreat.—Every young soldier, inflamed with the love of his profession, will study this curious and terrible campaign in the country itself where it was carried on.—He will go to contemplate these enormous masses of rocks, upon which the inhabitants of the Pyrenean and of the Carpathian mountains met, with astonishment—He will climb those precipitous paths, which nature seems to reserve for the light mountain goat, and which, however, were ascended by entire battalions.—He will reach those higher pinnacles where armed men went to dispute the thunder of the skies—those arid rocks, where men exposed to every want, felt still the desire of destroying one another.—He will descend into these gloomy hollows, of which the clang of arms so often disturbed the solemn repose.—He will traverse those rich vallies ravaged by war, and perhaps not yet reanimated by the hand of industry.—He will then receive a double lesson.—War will present itself to his eyes both as an art and as a scourge.—He will study the one for the love of his country, and will detest the other from a love for humanity; and he will say to himself: If ever fate places me at the head of an army, may I be able to find in the art, the means of diminishing the scourge.—May I wage war with sufficient knowledge to make it short and decisive.—May I be indebted for victory, rather to my head, than to my arm—and may I thus merit the gratitude of my country, and the esteem of my enemies, by sparing, as much as possible, the blood of the soldier, the property of the citizen, and the benefits of civilization.'

The latter volumes of this work, on which we now enter, much exceed their predecessors in interest, and are executed in a superior style. Vol. IV. contains the account of the Campaign of Italy in 1799, and commences with a view of the relative situations of the French and Austrians:

' If the account which has been given of the state of affairs in Italy at the time when the Directory resolved to recommence the war, has not been lost sight of, it will be remembered that at that moment that vast country was entirely in the power of the French, excepting that part of the state of Venice, ceded to the Emperor by the treaty of Campo Formio, the Dutchy of Parma, Tuscany, and nearly the half of the kingdom of Naples. They hastened to treat the southern parts of that country in the same way that they had done the northern for the preceding years, that is to say, to despoil its territory, and to corrupt the principles of its inhabitants, the double blessing which has always accompanied the apostles or defenders of French liberty. Nearly 80,000 French soldiers, and more than 50,000 Poles, Swiss, Piedmontese, Genoese, Romans, or Neapolitans, dispersed from the frontiers of Piedmont to that of Calabria, strove who should devour most greedily this new prey of the rights of man. Their conduct recalled to mind that of the Vandals, which they surpassed. These 130,000 soldiers, which composed eleven French and four Italian divisions, formed two armies, of which one was called the army of Italy, and the other that of Naples.'—

' The Austrian army occupied at a short distance the parallel line of the Adige, from the Italian Tyrol to beyond Rovigo. About 30,000 men were distributed along this line, while the army of reserve consisting of about the same number were cantoned in the Trevisano, Friuli, and Carniola.—All these troops were under the orders of Lieutenant General Kray, until Lieutenant General Melas should come to take the chief command.

' From this statement of the respective forces and positions, it appears that the French had a vast superiority in point of number, but that the Austrians had their forces concentered upon a short line, and that they could not be attacked but upon that line, while the French and their auxiliaries were scattered over the surface of Italy from the foot of the Alps to the gulphs of Naples and Manfredonia, had constantly to keep in subjection and often to combat a population of above ten millions of souls, and were obliged to guard the coasts of the Mediterranean and of the Adriatic, upon which hostile troops might at any time be landed by the English, Russian, and Turkish fleets, which held the dominion of the two seas, blocked up the ports of Corfu, Ancona, and Malta, and frequently appeared before those of Leghorn, Civitavecchia, and Naples.—It may then be said that the Austrians concentrated in a good position, having their left upon the Adriatic and their right upon the Alps, and communicating with

'The Imperialists, confined and threatened as they had been at the end of March on the line of the Adige, had in two months of the campaign gained three pitched battles, taken four fortresses, made themselves masters of the course of the Po, carried their right to the frontiers of France, and their left to the Adriatic Sea.—A Russian and Turkish squadron blocked up the port of Ancona, and bombarded that city.—General Klenau occupied the country of Ferrara, and a great part of that of Bologna, blockaded the fort of Urbino, and sent parties into Romagna, and as far as the frontiers of Tuscany.—General Ott with a division occupied the Dutchies of Parma and Modena, and had his advanced posts in the Appenines, and among other places at the important pass of Pentromoli.—General Kray who had been joined by the whole corps which had besieged the castle of Milan, and by reinforcements brought from the Hereditary countries, left 15,000 men before Mantua, passed the Po with an equal number to go and succour the divisions of Generals Ott and Klenau, and placed his head quarters at Castelluccio.—The three corps already mentioned blocked up Tortona and Alessandria, watched the mountains of the State of Genoa, and countenanced the insurgents of the maritime Alps.—The great army supported them still more at the other extremity of Piedmont, possessed itself of the passes which lead from this country to France, and kept in check the army of Moreau.—Such was the state of affairs at the end of the month of May in the upper parts of Italy.'

Why the plan of the campaign, which Marshal Suworow laid down and pursued,—and which even the present author ventures to call *singular* and *hazardous*,—did not lead to fortunate results, may be collected from the remarks here subjoined:

'Although Marshal Suworow had not perhaps imagined that Macdonald would arrive so soon, and with so many forces in Tuscany, and although it was at a moment when he encreased the distance between them by marching to Turin, yet he had not shut his eyes upon this augmentation of enemies which he would soon have to encounter; and it was to oppose them in the mean time that he had ordered General Kray to suspend the siege of Mantua, and to advance beyond the Po with fifteen battalions and twelve squadrons, of which movement an account has already been given. It has been seen that Generals Ott and Klenau who with very few troops had a large extent of country to defend, had been obliged to retire before Macdonald, notwithstanding the support afforded them by General Kray. Although always victorious, the allied army had been weakened by the very consequences of their success. In order to secure their conquests they were forced to spread and divide themselves into a multitude of parts: they had posts at the feet of the Appenines, the Maritime, the Upper and the Pennine Alps *, an immense circuit of

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' * The *Appenines* commence near Mount Appio in the state of Genoa, and as is well known divide lower Italy.—The *Maritime* Alps extend from Vado in the state of Genoa to the source of the Var, at which of more than 400 miles. The allied army at the same time carried on sieges on both sides of the Po, and sustained the war in the open country to a great distance from the towns which it either blockaded or besieged. Its right was on the frontiers of France, and its left upon the Adriatic Gulf. Its two flanks were at 300 miles distance from one another, and it may be said it was in a situation similar to that of the French at the commencement of the campaign, when on account of the vast extent of country which they guarded, they felt a relative inferiority though superior in number. As long as Marshal Suworow had no enemy but Moreau, he could with the forces he had continue this war, and at the same time act offensively against the army of the enemy; the small reinforcements which he received being at least equal to those sent to Moreau. But he had foreseen that when Macdonald should come to throw his weight into the scales, his situation would be much altered, and he had therefore beforehand asked for reinforcements both at Petersburgh and at Vienna. The first of these courts detached to his assistance 11,000 men of the 45,000 which it had destined to act in Switzerland: the second attaching less importance to the conquest of the latter country, than of Italy, ordered General Bellegarde with a part of his corps to reinforce Marshal Suworow, whenever he should be required to do so. This occasion was now come, and consequently, as has been mentioned in the preceding volume, General Bellegarde leaving General Haddick with a sufficient force in the Italian bailiwicks, quitted that country at the end of May with about 14,000 men, arrived at Milan on the 5th of June, and afterwards marched by Pavia to Alessandria, the blockade of which place was confided to him. This powerful reinforcement, and some free corps which arrived at the same time from the Hereditary states, put it in the power of Marshal Suworow to unite about 40,000 fighting men to oppose the two French Generals.'

The above-mentioned subtractions from the forces employed, and to be employed, in Switzerland, rescued Suworow from the disasters in which his measures would otherwise have involved him: but his temporary success was insured only by sacrifices which necessarily brought on the overthrow of the allies in the cantons, and paved the way to the unparalleled reverses of the next campaign.

The plans of the two republican Generals for effecting a junction of their armies, and the conduct of Suworow after the battle of the Adda, are very ably sketched: but for the particulars of these, and for the author's lively and sensible observations on them, we must refer to the work.

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which point begins the *Cottian* Alps, which reach as far as the town of Suza. From that the *Gratian* Alps occupy the space as far as Mount St. Bernard, as do the *Pennine* to St. Gothard. At that mountain begin the *Rhetian*, which end at the Piava; and from thence on to Istria, where the chain finishes, the mountains take the name of the *Northern* or *Carnic* Alps.'

The situation of affairs in Italy, about the time of the battle of Trebia, having been described, we are then presented with some animadversions on the conduct of the Russian Field Marshal, which appear to be very just:

> ' If that General, instead of extending his flanks, and of undertaking at once the siege or the blockade of Mantua, Peschiera, Pizzightone, the castle of Milan, of Ferrara, and afterwards of the citadels of Tortona and Turin, had contented himself with leaving in some chosen positions some strong detachments, which could have given him a security that the garrisons of these places should not unite and undertake any thing serious in his rear, and had keenly pressed Moreau with the greater part of his force, one of these two things must have happened: either the French would have waited for him, or have retreated before him. In the latter case, the object of the Field Marshal would have been accomplished; in the former, the immense superiority of the allied army, triumphant as it was, and at that time full of enthusiasm, would almost to a certainty have given him the victory over an army broken and discouraged by four great battles lost in the space of a month. Every action would have diminished its strength, both physical and moral, in the same proportion. It probably would not have required more than two actions to reduce it to a few thousand men, and to oblige it to repass the Alps, or at least to bury itself among their defiles. In that case the Marshal would more readily and with more certainty have attained the object which he had in view, that of gaining ground, than he did by adopting the other plan. He would besides have accomplished another point which the conduct that he pursued prevented him from attaining, that of barring the passage of Macdonald, and of preventing his junction with Moreau. It has in fact been seen what danger the cause of the allies incurred from the junction of these two Generals: one march more on the part of Macdonald, and one less on that of the Russian General, would have restored Italy to the French, or would at least have greatly limited the advantages of the campaign. Great credit is due to the latter General for the incredible rapidity with which he transported his army from the banks of the Bormida to those of the Tidone, and for the determined vigour with which he defeated the hopes of Macdonald, on the same spot where Hannibal chastised the foolish confidence of Sempronius. In three days he frustrated the plans which the French Generals had been a month in forming, compelled both the one and the other to shut themselves up in the Appenines; re-established the course of the campaign, and secured its glorious result. He it was who might truly have said—*Veni, vidi, vici.* If he did commit an error, which is doubtful, he knew how to repair it with resolution and ability; and this is a merit which distinguishes the Generals of the first order. Monsieur de Turenne committed one; but that has not prevented his being considered as the first of modern commanders.'

A proper tribute is paid to the gallantry of General Gardanne in the defence of the citadel of Alessandria; while the contrary behaviour of General Foissac Latour at Mantua is severely reprehended.

We must not omit the glowing panegyric which the author takes occasion to pass on our country:

' This article will be terminated by remarking how glorious the æra which has now been engaging attention was for England, and how extensive were the military means of every kind which she at that time displayed. Situated at one extremity of Europe she was re-establishing at the other extremity the king of Naples on his throne,—was preserving at the same time the Ottoman empire, and accomplished more with some ships and some hundreds of men, than that immense colossus could effect for its own sake—She was sustaining by her councils, her fleets, and her treasures, the energy, the confidence, and the efforts of her continental allies—She was preparing to effect in Holland a powerful diversion in their favour—She was shewing herself on the seas superior to the united maritime powers of France and Spain.—In a remote part of the globe, she was successful in rendering the whole of India one of her colonies. In the midst of this prodigious and incomparable exhibition of her power, and of this divergence of her force, she was successfully employed in encreasing and concentrating it by the union of Ireland with Great Britain. Such was to this fortunate island, flourishing at home, and powerful abroad, the happy result of the wisdom of the constitution, the virtues of the Sovereign, the genius of Ministers, and the public spirit of the nation.'

After the fall of the citadel of Alessandria, and the surrender of Mantua, the views of Suworow are said to have been 'to confine the French within the passages of the Alps, from the Valais all the way to Coni—to approach that place nearer and nearer, in order to be able to invest it easily when the proper time should come to besiege Tortona—to force the united armies of Moreau and Macdonald to remain stationary in the maritime Alps and the Appenines—and to gain ground on their right flank in the Riviera di Levante.'

From the details respecting the important and long-dubious battle of Novi, in which the French army was at length defeated, and their commander, Joubert, killed; it appears that not only the reinforcements drawn from Switzerland, but the ill conduct of Foissac Latour, and the fine movements of Melas, were necessary to save the reputation of the Russian hero. This Field Marshal being now about to quit the scene, the writer lays before his readers a summary of his public life, which we were very desirous of quoting; since it is interesting in its subject, able in its execution, and (in our opinion) discriminating in its judgment:—but, as it is of considerable extent, we cannot make room for it, and must content ourselves with copying the concluding paragraph; than which, we think, nothing can be more happy and apposite:

'To

› give in a few words a final opinion upon this man, it may
, that he appears to have possessed rather the instinct of war
ıy deep knowledge of its art—that he had more energy of
:er, than extent of genius—that he knew admirably well how
ıly the want of one, by the other—that he must not be com-
vith any other General—that in that capacity as well as in
an individual, he stood single—that he was the best possible
l for Russians—that if he was not great, he was however capa-
loing great things, and that he has done some.'

: XIIIth and concluding chapter of this volume is full of
ıting and skillful remarks on the military results and
al singularities of this campaign, with a review of the
ct of the different commanders, &c. We cannot refrain
:xtracting a few passages, which appear to us to possess
nerit:

vain would a campaign be sought for in history, so calculated
which has just been described, to instruct the military man,
rest the politician, and to astonish both. The French have
een masters, at the beginning of March, of all the length of
rom Turin to Naples, (an extent of command without ex-
since that of the Romans): and they have been seen before
d of the year possessing only in this vast country, the moun-
f Liguria. Their enemies have been seen gain in this lapse of
x pitched battles, taken seven fortresses of the first order, and
heir victorious colours from the sources of the Po to the sea of
We have seen three Republics destroyed, as they had been
l, by the force of arms: two monarchies calling for their legi-
chiefs: the Pontifical chair expecting a successor to the un-
ate Pius the Sixth: in a word Jacobinism losing the richest
hat it had yet seized. We have seen men born amidst the ices
pole, fighting during the dog days, under the skies of Italy:
ciples of Mahomet defending the rights of the successor of St.
Protestants re-establishing the seat of the Catholic religion:
ses besieged and taken by sailors: in short, Italy the rendez-
nd the prey of almost all the nations over which it reigned two
nd years ago.—Such military transactions leave far behind
all preceding campaigns: such political singularities find not
qual in the annals of the world.'—

he principal transactions of this campaign having thus been
and classed, a view must be taken of the causes which led to,
uenced its result. The first and most efficient of all was the
hat the Directory was guilty of in wishing to make war at once
banks of the Adige, and at the foot of Mount Vesuvius. If
l of keeping their troops dispersed along that immense line,
ad, as soon as they decided to renew the war, collected on the
of the Po the army spread throughout the kingdom of Naples,
States of the Church, and in Tuscany, even though they had
rrisons in two or three principal places, they would have begun
ies not with 45,000 men as they did, but with more than
›: and it is not doubtful but that with this great superiority

of forces, the army of Italy would have broken the line of the Adige, and have penetrated rapidly, on one side beyond the Friuli, and on the other beyond the Tyrol which was already taken in reverse by General Lecourbe.'—

'It is admitted by every one, that Moreau shewed in this campaign much conception, talents, and judgment. The movement which he made from Milan to Turin, and from Turin to Alessandria, was excellent, skilful, and bold. Those which he made from Coni towards Genoa, and from Genoa to Tortona, were equally ably conceived; but the latter appears to have been tardy. To appreciate properly his conduct, it must be recollected that with forces very inferior, he maintained himself in the plain from the end of April till that of May; and that afterwards having retired into the mountains, he disturbed till the beginning of September the operations of the allies. As has been observed by a man who understood the art of war best, and has written best upon it, *defensive war consists entirely in the prudence and foresight of him who conducts it.* Moreau felt it, and has proved it: the defence which he sustained was intelligent, active, well calculated, and provident. His destiny in this campaign was rather singular: what had not probably happened to any other General, having twice in the space of four months succeeded to the command in chief of the same army.'—

'Where is the man who could reckon all the soldiers who fell at the same time in the different provinces of Upper Italy, in the states of Genoa, of Tuscany, of the Church, and in the kingdom of Naples? Where is he, who amidst the torrents of blood with which unhappy Italy was moistened, could number and distinguish the French, the Germans, the Russians, the Italians, and the Poles, who were at once the victims of this terrible war? Who, alas! would be disposed, even was he qualified for it, to enter into this melancholy calculation? Who would not rather fly from, than seek the scene of horror; stifle the sentiment of curiosity, under that of humanity; and prefer ignorance to knowledge on this subject? Why cannot the historian shut his eyes against this afflicting picture? But condemned as he is to open those of the public, after having examined with attention all the calculations of the daily losses worthy of notice, after having compared and weighed all the estimates that have been made on this subject, he will find himself not far from the truth in stating the loss experienced by the allies in killed and wounded at 30,000 men; in prisoners at 10,000; and that of the French in the first respect at 45,000, and in the second at 35,000. From this it results that it cost the Republicans twice as many men as it did the allies, a natural consequence of six great defeats, of a great number of fortresses being lost, and of a campaign entirely of disasters. It is also seen that it caused a sacrifice of 75,000 soldiers, the victims of the silly and barbarous ambition of five men, who replunged the world into the horrors of war.'

We have passed over the occasional episodes on the affairs of the South of Italy, which occur in this volume, as not in general deserving of much notice: but a remark is made relative to the siege of Ancona which seems to merit attention, as it has been said that this event laid the foundation for the differences which soon afterward arose between the two Imperial Courts:

'The conquest of Ancona secured the navigation, and the tranquillity of the Adriatic, and permitted the Austrians to reinforce the main army with some thousand men. If in these respects the acquisition of this place was advantageous to them, it was in others very fatal. Upon the reduction of it, the Russian troops were guilty of disorders and excesses which General Frœlich punished with great severity. The Emperor Paul resented so warmly the treatment his troops had received, that his Imperial Majesty of Germany was obliged to assemble at Vienna in the month of February following, a Council of War, in which the conduct of General Frœlich was examined. Although acquitted, this General was the victim, and was obliged to lose in retirement the fruit of the distinguished services which he had performed in the course of the campaign. This difference between the courts of Petersburgh and of Vienna contributed not a little, combined with other causes, to detach the former from its alliance with the latter.'

The Vth volume of this work relates entirely to the campaign of the British and Russians in Holland in 1799, and will be the subject of a future article: for which it will alone furnish an ample supply of interesting matter.

[*To be continued.*]

Art. VI. *Lectures on Ecclesiastical History.* To which is added, An Essay on Christian Temperance and Self-denial: By the late George Campbell, D.D. Principal of Marischal College, Aberdeen. With some Account of the Life and Writings of the Author. By the Rev. George Skene Keith, Keith Hall, Aberdeenshire. 8vo. 2 Vols. 16s. Boards. Johnson. 1800.

THE public are here presented with a work which is replete with instruction, and which therefore ought not to be hastily inspected, but to be diligently studied, and maturely digested. It is, indeed, less calculated to initiate the student, than to assist the judgment of those who are deeply read in these subjects; and, though it proceeds from the pen of a theologian, it is more adapted for the statesman than for the divine. If a man be impelled by his nature to pursuits of ambition, or if he only delight in observing the workings of that splendid passion, let him turn over the pages of ecclesiastical history; for in them he will trace the steps, by which the low born adventurer raises himself to the pinnacle of power; by which a spiritual concern transforms itself into a temporal domination; by which a *cure of souls* grows up into the highest worldly authority; and by which the pastor of a congregation becomes the first among numerous potentates, creating and dethroning kings and emperors,—or disposing, at his will, of regions still undiscovered. If a man would also know the nature of courts, he must study that of Rome, the model from which those of Europe have copied. If he be desirous of learning what intrigue is capable of effecting, he must penetrate into the arcana of ecclesiastical councils. If he would be informed to what curious devices the love of power sometimes resorts, he must make himself acquainted with the contests which have existed between civil and spiritual tribunals; and with the methods employed by religious corporations, to elude the legal provisions by which their aggrandizement was restrained. It is not a little singular that those, whose professional occupations related altogether to another and a future world, should have displayed the most daring, persevering, and subtile efforts in forming, maintaining, and strengthening their power in this transient state.

Whatever may be the spirit and the maxims in ecclesiastical matters which prevail in North Britain, we apprehend that the late worthy Principal Campbell will be considered in the *South* as too much a latitudinarian; as treating too freely of church affairs; as laying open too much of the ambition of priests and the cabals of synods; as censuring too comprehensively, and too generally, the early controversies in the Christian world; as insisting rather suspiciously on a spirit of inquiry and a love of truth; and as undervaluing the merit of conformity to the faith and canons of the church. Without intruding any opinion, however, on many of the points discussed in these volumes, we cannot but applaud the impartial spirit, the accurate judgment, and the nice discrimination which they display. The facts which they narrate are well selected, the comments on those facts are masterly, and the inferences drawn from them are natural and ingenious; while the observations which accompany them are pertinent and acute. To those who are unread in Fra Paoli, Giannoni, and in Fleury, the work will prove most acceptable; and even by such as have perused the labours of those incomparable writers, its pages will not be examined without profit.

A well-composed account of the author's life is prefixed to these volumes; which precludes the necessity of our enlarging on his character, as we shall better consult the interests of our readers by making a few extracts from these valuable, though (in some particulars) rather partial memoirs.

We fully agree with the biographer, that 'few men, in the republic of letters, have been more generally, or more deservedly, esteemed than the late Dr. George Campbell. The powers of his mind were very great, and those powers highly cultivated. He was certainly one of the most acute metaphysicians, one of the deepest philosophers, and one of the best critics, and most learned divines, which modern times have produced.' He was born 'at Aberdeen, the 25th day of December, 1719. His father was the Reverend Colin Campbell, one of the ministers of that city. His grandfather was George Campbell, Esq. of Westhall, in Aberdeenshire, who had originally come from Moray, and was a descendant of Campbell of Moy, and a cadet of the family of Argyle.'

At the early age of nine years, our author had the misfortune of losing his father, who died in circumstances not very affluent:

'But (says Mr. Keith) the exertions which he was obliged to make added not a little to the energy of his character; and he was one of the many evidences of this truth, that the children of the fatherless are often more successful in life, than those who have enjoyed the protection, the support, and the tender care of both their parents.

'He was indeed very fortunate in being educated in the grammar school of Aberdeen, where the Latin tongue has been taught with great success for more than a century; and in being a student at Marischal College, where Dr. Thomas Blackwell, principal and professor of Greek, though he was not Mr. Campbell's immediate preceptor, had introduced a thorough knowledge of Grecian literature; and had excited an ardent zeal for carrying, as far as was possible, the study of that copious and expressive language, which had been too much neglected, but is now more attended to, in all the Scotch universities.'——

'After he had been nine years minister to a country parish, he was translated to Aberdeen, and became one of the ministers of that city on the 23d day of June, 1757, in the room of Mr. John Bisset, deceased. Here his character, as a lecturer, was completely established: here he had an opportunity of consulting what books he wished to see on the various subjects to which he turned his attention; and here he delivered several ingenious and learned discourses on rhetoric, criticism, and other subjects, in the literary society of Aberdeen, of which he was a member.'——

'In 1759, he was presented by his Majesty to the office of principal of Marischal College, then vacant by the death of principal Pollock.'——

'On the death of principal Pollock, two other candidates applied for the vacant office. The magistrates of Aberdeen supported the brother of their provost, or mayor, professor Duncan; and the great landed interest of the county, with the good offices, or wishes, of a number of the masters in Marischal College, was exerted in favour of Dr. Francis Skene, a gentleman of a most respectable character, and engaging manners, who had been above twenty years a professor of philosophy in that university. Mr. Campbell had no thoughts, at first, of making any application; but he was afterwards prevailed upon to write to Archibald Duke of Argyle, who had, for many years, had the chief direction of Scotch affairs. In this letter, Mr. Campbell modestly stated his relation to his Grace's family. And this circumstance, added no doubt to his character as a man of abilities, procured to him, in a very short time, a royal presentation to the office of principal of Marischal College.'

The account here given of Principal Campbell's conduct towards Mr. Hume, on publishing his answer to that philosopher's *Essay on Miracles* *, does him the highest honor; and we wish that our limits would permit us to insert it. We must, however, recommend the statement as a lesson to all controversial writers.

Of Dr. C.'s version of the Gospels, the biographer speaks in high terms: but it is not necessary for us now to enlarge on this great and last work of the worthy Principal, because we gave a very copious account of it at the time of its appearance. See M. R. vol. ii. N. S. p. 121, 249, 404.

We shall now present our readers with Mr. Keith's view of Dr. Campbell's religious sentiments:

'In giving a more particular account of the opinions of this learned divine, it is proper to make a few distinctions, or selections. He highly disapproved of the modern Socinians, or rationalists, as they call themselves, who attempt to explain away the peculiar doctrines of the gospel. On the other hand, though satisfied, in his own mind, of the truth of the essential doctrines of Christianity, he also disapproved of certain abstruse questions concerning the Trinity, the *nature* of Christ's satisfaction, and such like controversies. He considered the proposing of these questions as arguing great presumption, and the contending about them, and the defining them very particularly, as always improper, and sometimes perhaps even impious.'—'He was uncommonly liberal to those who differed from him in religious opinions; so liberal, indeed, that he did not approve of considering some modern writers as infidels, who profess to be Christians, though they have written rather freely on certain articles. He thought that this was doing too much honour to infidelity, and driving such persons, who, with great abilities, might have keen resentments, to throw off all regard to revelation.'

With the following observations, which are honorable to him who makes them, as well as to the excellent person to whom they are applied, we shall close our extracts from this biographical sketch:

'The most prominent feature, in his moral character, was his love of truth. No man was ever more strict in speaking truth; and the least deviation from it was accompanied with the strongest marks of his disapprobation †. It was by paying this strict regard to truth and principle, that he strengthened the powers of his understanding, while he preserved his virtue uncorrupted. For though a regard to truth cannot create or produce genius, yet it wonderfully corroborates the powers of the understanding. The man who perverts his reason, or bends it to support a falsehood, even if he have genius and abilities, becomes only a sophist; and though he may sometimes impose upon others, always lands in self-deception. But a man of equal genius and talents, who employs all the powers of his understanding only in searching after or defending truth, braces the faculties of his mind, as well as preserves his virtue. In this case, whether the reason, even of a man of genius, shall resemble an oak, or an osier, depends on always adhering to truth, and never bending to power, or acting contrary to conviction. The man, who would be qualified for answering such a writer as Mr. Hume, must have that love of truth, which was possessed by Dr. Campbell.'

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* For Dr. Campbell's *Dissertation on Miracles*, see Rev. vol. xxvi. p. 499.

† In this scrupulosity, Dr. C. may be said to have resembled Epaminondas, who is described by Cornelius Nepos as being *adeo veritatis diligens, ut ne joco quidem mentiretur.* Rev.

It has often been remarked that virtue is the road to truth; and the above observations on the utility of truth in strengthening the capacities of the mind for science, as well as for the persevering practice of virtue, deserve the attention of those who are employed in the great business of education, and of all others who are sollicitous of acting a truly noble part on the theatre of life.

With regard to the volumes now submitted to public acceptance, it is observed by the editor, in a prefixed advertisement, that

'The following discourses on Church History are a considerable part of a course of Theological Lectures, delivered in Marischal College. The Author had transcribed and revised them, and was every year making considerable alterations and additions to the Work. For more than the last twenty years of his life, his Lectures to the Students of Divinity occupied the greater part of his time, and those now offered to the Public were distinguished as the most curious and entertaining branch of the whole. By the hearers, and many others, the Publication has been called for with a degree of earnestness, which now seldom attends the appearance of a theological performance. Those who have read the other writings of the author, will naturally expect here something of that clearness of apprehension, and acuteness of investigation so eminently displayed in the Dissertation on Miracles, in answer to Mr. Hume. And such as are acquainted with the subject, will admire the Author's well-digested learning, and will readily perceive the importance of an accurate historical deduction of the progress of church power, and the establishment of a hierarchy, and how clear and decisive it is, in all that may be termed the hinge of the controversy between high church and others. Seldom, very seldom indeed, has the subject been treated with the perspicuity, candour, and moderation, which distinguish the writings of Doctor Campbell.'

The third lecture presents a very curious and full account of the rise and progress of ecclesiastical judicature; with reflections on the present state of it in different countries. If any of our readers be desirous of knowing what were the sentiments of this learned author respecting our ecclesiastical jurisdictions, as constituted in this part of the island, we may refer them to pp. 71—74, in which the application of the Lord's Supper, as a qualification for civil offices, is discussed and reprobated.—The Doctor concludes this lecture with acknowleging his obligations to Fra Paoli's treatise on ecclesiastical benefices, and with a sketch of the character of that celebrated man.

When we consider to what religious communion Dr. Campbell belonged, it must not surprize us if, in setting forth the polity of the primitive church, he should seem to have pleasure in representing the Bishop and the Presbyter as of equal rank; and if he should contend that the latter was at first no more than the President of the Presbytery, and that the Bishop owed his subsequent pre-eminence to causes similar to those which, at a later period, converted certain Bishops into Metropolitans, and certain Metropolitans into Exarchs and Patriarchs. In common with all the advocates of the churches styled the reformed, and agreeably to the concessions of some members of other communions, the author maintains that the Primitive Bishop was merely the Pastor of a single congregation; that his charge was confined to a parish, though ambition afterward extended it to that of a diocese; and that the hierarchy, as to all its higher members, was formed on the model of the civil magistracy of the Roman Empire. The Doctor very much labours the point of the growth of the parochial into the diocesan charge; and he observes, after Grotius and others, that our Saviour and the sacred writers never compare the Christian ministers with the priests under the Mosaic dispensation.—Believing, as we do, that ecclesiastical (like civil) polity is an institution for attaining certain ends, which may and ought to vary with times and circumstances, we are not of opinion that the form, which prevailed in any one particular age, should be rigidly preserved and followed in every other. The reason of the thing and the authority of scripture fortify us in this sentiment; and we are happy also in finding that, in this respect, the author of the present work differs little from us. The decisions on the questions here discussed do not, therefore, in our judgment, settle the debate respecting the polity which ought to be preferred in new and different situations. Let it not, then, be deemed disaffection to our own church, if we admit that the question, whether Bishops belonged to the same order with Presbyters has been involved in much uncertainty, is far from having been fully cleared up, and is incapable perhaps of being satisfactorily solved. We are aware that Fra Paoli and Gibbon decidedly maintained the identity of these offices in the earliest ages of the church; and also that the constitution of the synagogue, which was unquestionably the model after which the first Christian congregations were formed, supports the same notion. Whatever may be thought on this subject, we are of opinion that it would be very difficult to confute Dr. Campbell's sentiments respecting the extent of the charge of a Primitive Bishop, the equal powers of Presbyters, and the antient sense in which the word *church* was used, as expressive either of one single congregation, or of the whole body of the faithful. (Lecture VI.)

'Properly (says the Doctor) there are, in the New Testament, but two original senses of the word εκκλησια, which can be called different, though related. One is, when it denotes a number of people actually assembled, or accustomed to assemble together, and is then properly rendered by the English terms congregation, convention, assembly, and even sometimes crowd, as in Acts xix. 32. 40. The other sense is to denote a society united together by some common tie, though not convened, perhaps not convenable, in one place. And in this acceptation, as well as in the former, it sometimes occurs in classical writers, as signifying a state, or commonwealth, and nearly corresponding to the Latin *civitas*. When the word is limited, or appropriated, as it generally is in the New Testament, by its regimen, as τȣ Θεȣ, τȣ κυριȣ, τȣ Χριϛȣ, or by the scope of the place, it is always to be explained in one or other of the two senses following, corresponding to the two general senses above mentioned. It denotes either a single congregation of Christians, in correspondence to the first, or the whole Christian community, in correspondence to the second. We can hardly ever be at a loss to know from the context which of the two is implied. That it is in the former acceptation, is sometimes evident from the words in construction, as της εκκλησιας τη εν Κεγχρεαις, and τη εκκλησια τȣ Θεȣ τη εν Κορινθω, and the like. In the latter sense it ought always to be understood when we find nothing in the expression, or in the scope of the passage, to determine us to limit it; for instance in the following, Επι ταυτη τη πετρα οικοδομησω μȣ την εκκλησιαν. Ὁ κυριος προσετιθει τȣς σωζομενȣς καθ' ἡμεραν τη εκκλησια. In this last acceptation of the word, for the whole body of Christ's disciples, wheresoever dispersed, it came afterwards to be distinguished by the epithet καθολικη. They said ἡ εκκλησια ἡ καθολικη, the catholic or universal church.

'But in any intermediate sense, between a single congregation and the whole community of Christians, not one instance can be brought of the application of the word in sacred writ. We speak now, indeed, (and this has been the manner for ages) of the Gallican church, the Greek church, the church of England, the church of Scotland, as of societies independent and complete in themselves. Such a phraseology was never adopted in the days of the apostles. They did not say the church of Asia, or the church of Macedonia, or the church of Achaia, but the churches of God in Asia, the churches in Macedonia, the churches in Achaia. The plural number is invariably used when more congregations than one are spoken of, unless the subject be of the whole commonwealth of Christ. Not is this the manner of the penmen of sacred writ only. It is the constant usage of the term in the writings of ecclesiastical authors for the two first centuries.'

To manifest the liberality of Dr. Campbell, we give the following short extract:

'It will be observed by the judicious and the candid, that what has been advanced does not affect the lawfulness, or even, in certain circumstances, the expediency of the episcopal model; it only exposes the arrogance of pretending to a *jus divinum*. I am satisfied that no form of polity can plead such an exclusive charter as that phrase, in its present acceptation, is understood to imply. The claim is clearly the offspring of sectarian bigotry and ignorance. In regard to those polities which obtain at present in the different Christian sects, I own ingenuously that I have not found one of all that I have examined which can be said perfectly to coincide with the model of the apostolic church. Some, indeed, are nearer, and some more remote; but this we may say with freedom, that if a particular form of polity had been essential to the church, it had been laid down in another manner in the sacred books. The very hypothesis is, in my opinion, repugnant to the spiritual nature of the evangelical economy. It savours grossly of the conceit with which the Jews were intoxicated of the Messiah's secular kingdom, a conceit with which many like-minded Christians are intoxicated still.'

In support of the author's claim to the praise which we have just bestowed on him, we need only state that he denies that ruling elders, officers of great authority in the church of Scotland, have any foundation for their appointment in Scripture; and that he allows to Peter a primacy among the apostles, maintaining that he was the President of their College. We admire the reflections which close his discussion of this point:

'Some keen controvertists on the protestant side would be apt to censure what has been now advanced in regard to the apostle Peter, as yielding too much to the Romanists. Yet in fact nothing at all is yielded. The bishop of Rome has no more claim to be the successor of Peter, than the bishop of London has, or indeed any pastor in the church. It is but too commonly the effect, though a very bad effect, of religious controversy, that impartiality and even judgment are laid aside by both parties, and each considers it as his glory to contradict the other as much, and to recede from his sentiments as far, as possible. One is afraid of every thing that looks like concession: it is like losing ground in a battle. For when once unhappily the controversial spirit has gotten possession of a man, his object is no longer truth but victory. Against this evil I would warn you, my young friends, as much as possible. Revere truth above all things wherever ye find it. Attend coolly and calmly to the voice of reason, from what quarter soever it comes. Let not the avenues to your understanding be choaked up with prejudices and prepossessions, but be always open to conviction.'

The subsequent account of the laity, (Lect. IX.) as given by some ecclesiastical Doctors, is curious:

> ' To return to the distinction of the whole church into clergy and laity: in after ages they even improved upon their predecessors. The schoolmen (a modest race, all clergymen) thought it was doing the laymen too much honour to derive the name from λαος, populus. It suited their notions better to deduce it from λαας, lapis, a stone. Take for a specimen a few things advanced on this subject by some celebrated doctors, as quoted by Altensfaig in his Lexicon Theologicum. " Capitur clericus pro viro docto, scientifico, perito, scientia pleno, repleto et experto. E contra laicus capitur pro viro indocto, imperito, insipiente et lapideo. Unde laicus dicetur a λαας Græce, quod est lapis Latine. Et sic omnis clericus, in quantum clericus, est laudabilis; laicus vero, in quantum laicus, est vituperandus. Clerici quoque a toto genere de jure præponuntur, et debent præponi laicis."

Cardinal Bona thus treats the same class:

> " De laicis in quibus mater cæcitatis superbia regnat, quatenus ad ea quæ sunt fidei et morum. Cum enim sicut idiotæ presumunt sacram scripturam exponere, quæ est profundissima omnium scripturarum. Cum iterum habeant quandam honestatem exteriorem, contemnunt vitam omnium aliorum, et merito hujus duplicis superbiæ excæcantur, ut incidant in errorem istum pessimum, per quem excæcantur a Deo, ut nesciant discernere quid bonum est et quid malum. Quare non omnes scripturæ libros legant laici. Quoniam nihil est tam sanctum et salubre et pium quo non contingat abuti, sic de libris evenit, quorum non est culpa, neque scribentium, sed scelus est in abusu: non tamen arcendi videntur ab opusculis moralibus et devotis, nullam in se difficultatem, nec ambiguitatem, nec absurditatem in translatione gerentibus, cujusmodi sunt historiæ, vel vitæ, vel legendæ sanctorum, nec non meditationes sanctæ."

As these quotations ought not to pass without remark, Dr. C. sarcastically adds:—' How condescending is the good doctor! He does not absolutely prohibit the stupid and conceited generation of laymen from reading some of the plainer books of Scripture, and indulges them freely in what is better for them, story-books and godly meditations, and the legends of the saints!'

A very learned disquisition occurs in Lect. XI. on the subject of Ordination; the author contending that it is null unless connected with a *cura animarum;* and he quotes, in favour of his position, the words of Leo, Bishop of Rome:—" *Vana est habenda ordinatio, quæ nec loco fundata est, nec auctoritate munita.*" In his application of this doctrine, to the Dissenters of the North of this island, the lecturer discovers his usual ability:

> ' One will perhaps be surprised to hear, that our Scotch episcopal party, who have long affected to value themselves on the regular transmission of their orders, have none but what they derive from bishops merely nominal. I do not mention this with a view to derogate from their powers, but only as an argumentum ad hominem,

to shew how much their principles militate against themselves: It does not suit my notions of Christianity, to retaliate on any sect, or to forbid any to cast out devils in the name of Christ, because they follow not us. If the lust of power had not with churchmen more influence than the spirit of the gospel, greater attention would have been given to the decision of their master in a like case. Even their own writers acknowledge, that immediately after the death of Dr. Ross, bishop of Edinburgh, the last of those ordained before the revolution, there were no local bishops in Scotland, not one appointed to any diocese, or having the inspection of any people, or spiritual jurisdiction over any district. But there were bishops who had been ordained at large, some by bishop Ross, others by some of the Scotch bishops, who, after the revolution, had retired to England. The warmest partizans of that sect have not scrupled to own, that at that gentleman's decease all the dioceses in Scotland were become vacant, and even to denominate those who had been ordained in the manner abovementioned, Utopian bishops: a title not differing materially from that which I have given them, *merely nominal bishops*. For as far as I can learn, they were not titular, even in the lowest sense. No axiom in philosophy is more indisputable than that *Quod nullibi est, non est*. The ordination, therefore, of our present Scotch episcopal clergy, is solely from presbyters; for it is allowed, that those men who came under the hands of bishop Ross had been regularly admitted ministers, or presbyters, in particular congregations, before the revolution. And to that first ordination, I maintain that their farcical consecration by Dr. Ross, and others, when they were solemnly made the depositaries of no deposit, commanded to be diligent in doing no work, vigilant in the oversight of no flock, assiduous in teaching and governing no people, and presiding in no church, added nothing at all. Let no true son of our church be offended, that I acknowledge our nonjurors to have a *sort* of presbyterian ordination; for I would by no means be understood as equalizing theirs to that which obtains with us. Whoever is ordained amongst us is ordained a bishop by a class of bishops. It is true we neither assume the titles, nor enjoy the revenues, of the dignified clergy, so denominated in other countries; but we are not the less bishops in every thing essential, for being more conformable to the apostolical and primitive model, when every bishop had but one parish, one congregation, one church or place of common worship, one altar or communion table, and was perhaps as poor as any of us. Whereas the ordination of our nonjurors proceeds from presbyters, in their own (that is, in the worst) sense of the word, men to whom a part only of the ministerial powers was committed, and from whom particularly was with-held the right of transmitting orders to others. When we say that our orders are from presbyters, we do not use the term in their acceptation, but in that wherein we find it used by Luke, in the acts of the apostles, by Paul in his epistles, and (if the name of fathers be thought to add any weight) by the purest and earliest fathers, Clemens Romanus, Polycarp, and others, presbyters, in short, whom the Holy Ghost has made bishops of the flock. But when we say their orders are from presbyters, we use the word not in the apostolical, but in the more recent, sense, for a sort of subordinate ministers, who are not authorised to ordain, and who, on Dr. Hammond's hypothesis, as well as ours, were not originally in the church.'

Dr. C. then continues the subject, with some pleasantry:

'With the Romanists, matrimony and holy orders are both equally sacraments, and are, besides, thought to have a great analogy to each other. The relation which Christ bears to his church, that is, the church universal, is in Scripture compared to the relation which the husband bears to the wife. And the relation which the bishop bears to the particular church under his care, has been often represented by the fathers as an emblem of the relation which Christ bears to the church universal. Pope Innocent the third adopts the same metaphor, calling ordination the spiritual marriage of the bishop to his church. To this idea also the ceremony of the ring in consecration, still retained in the church of Rome, unquestionably owes its origin. No consistent Roman catholic, therefore, can be offended, that I borrow an illustration from what he accounts likewise a sacrament, and the most analogous of them all, by the consent of popes and fathers, to the subject in hand. Now if it had happened to be (as, no doubt, if it had suited any political purpose, it would have been) the practice to celebrate marriages sometimes, απολελυμενως, wherein, if you will admit the absurdity of the expression, which, in these cases, is unavoidable, you make a man a husband, or marry him, without giving him a wife, what would really have been conferred on the man by such a ceremony? By marriage, indeed, you lay him under certain obligations, and give him certain rights. But as the wife is the object of the one, and the source of the other, where there is no wife they can have no existence. The case of the bishop is precisely the same. If you give him no charge, the obligations to superintendency, and the claims of submission and support, for want of a subject, can have no existence. What then is there in the one ceremony more nugatory than in the other? For if unmeaning words will satisfy, why may not the mystical, invisible, indelible character of husband be imprinted by the first, as that of priest or bishop is by the second?'

The Church of Scotland, it seems, does not maintain the indelible character of its priesthood; and the tenet is treated much at large by Dr. Campbell, and attacked with great force. This Romish notion was adopted, we believe, by our church; and the prevailing opinion seems to be that it is recognized as such by the state, and put in force accordingly. That it is not founded on divine authority, but that it originates in human policy, we should, after having perused the present writer's remarks, have felt much inclined to have admitted, *nisi* nostræ *obstaret consensus ecclesiæ.*—Dr. C. thus speaks on this subject:

'Beside what may be said to be conferred visibly and intelligibly in all regular ordinations, the charge of a certain district, in what regards spiritual matters, and the oversight of the people, there must be something invisible and unintelligible, which is nevertheless the principal, else all those loose ordinations would be mere nullities. This mysterious something they called the *character* impressed, which was no sooner discovered or devised, than it constituted the essence of the sacrament; the other particulars relating to the charge of a flock, which to an ordinary understanding might appear to be the whole, were then found to be but circumstances.'——

'Would we then track this nonsense to its source? We must dip, or rather dive, into the futile logomachies of the schoolmen; for it will be found to be the genuine production of the darkly subtle metaphysico-scholastical theology of the middle ages. Nothing could be idler than to attempt the refutation of a dogma, for which a vestige of evidence has never been produced. But were the business of refuting incumbent upon us, a little further examination of the subject, and of the opinions that have been advanced concerning it, would entirely supercede the necessity.

'Two puzzling questions have been moved on the subject, which were hotly agitated, but not solved, in the council of Trent, where it was thought necessary, however, to make a decree, affirming the character in opposition to one of the Lutheran articles denying it. One question is, wherein it consists; the other, whereon it is imprinted. In answer to the former, relating to the quiddity of the character, as these sophisters love to express it, it has been observed, first negatively, that it cannot be an infusion of grace, as of faith, hope, or charity, because, say our profound disquisitors, all the seven sacraments confer grace, whereas it is only the three that cannot be repeated, the unreiterable, which imprint a character; besides, it can be neither grace nor virtue for this other reason: both these may be lost, whereas the character is indelible. As little can it be a particular qualification, which fits the person for the discharge of the duties of the office, for a man may become totally unqualified by age and infirmities, or he may unqualify himself by vice. Besides, it has never been denied that persons, very ill qualified, have been ordained, and never appeared one jot better qualified after their ordination than before. It could not be the gift of justification, because this is what the impenitent, in mortal sin, does not receive in any sacrament; and yet an impenitent, in mortal sin, may be ordained and receive the character. But to consider the thing positively, there were who maintained that it was a quality. Among those there were four different opinions, according to the four sorts of qualities distinguished in the schools. Some affirmed that it is a spiritual power, others a habit or disposition, others a spiritual figure; nor was the notion that it is a sensible metaphorical quality without its advocates. Some would have it to be a real relation, others a fabric of the mind; though it was by no means clear how far these considered it as removed from nothing.

'As to the second question, the *ubi* of the character, there was no less variety of sentiments than about the first, some placing it in the essence of the soul, others in the understanding; some in the will, and others more plausibly in the imagination; others

> even in the hands and the tongue; but, by the general voice, the body was excluded. So that the whole of what they agreed in amounts to this, that in the unreiterable sacraments, as they call them, something, they know not what, is imprinted, they know not how, on something in the soul of the recipient, they know not where, which never can be deleted.
>
> 'In regard to the indelibility, all agreed, insomuch, that though a bishop, priest, or deacon, turn heretic or schismatic, deist or atheist, he still retains the character, and though not a Christian man, he is still a Christian bishop, priest, or deacon; nay, though he be degraded from his office, and excommunicated, he is, in respect of the character, still the same. Though he be cut off from the church, he is still a minister in the church. In such a situation to perform any of the sacred functions, would be in him a deadly sin, but these would be equally valid as before. Thus he may not be within the pale of the church himself, and yet be in the church a minister of Jesus Christ. He may openly and solemnly blaspheme God, and abjure the faith of Christ; he may apostatize to Judaism, to Mahometism, or to Paganism, he still retains the character. He may even become a priest of Jupiter, or a priest of Baal, and still continue a priest of Jesus Christ. The character, say the schoolmen, is not cancelled in the damned, but remains with the wicked to their disgrace and greater confusion; so that even in hell they are the ministers of Jesus Christ, and the messengers of the new covenant. Nor is it cancelled in the blessed, but remains in heaven with them for their greater glory and ornament.'

It is not often that we have the opportunity of introducing, to the acquaintance of our readers, works of equal merit with the present; and this must be our apology for the length to which we have now extended our remarks and extracts, and for the additional account which we have yet to give. The second volume will be the subject of an article in our next number.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. VII. *The Reports of the Society for bettering the Condition and increasing the Comforts of the Poor.* Vol. II. 8vo. pp. 500. 6s. 6d. (12mo. 2s.) Boards. Hatchard, Becket, &c.

THE exertions of this Society are not less meritorious than its professed object is laudable; and we have several times adverted with approbation to the proofs of its persevering industry. Our account of the First Report may be found in M. R. vol xxiii. N. S. p. 476; and we again announced it, together with the five subsequent numbers, as forming the first volume, in M. R. vol. xxix. p. 240. To this second volume, including also six Reports, is affixed a judicious prefatory Introduction by Mr. Bernard; in which he states the circumstances that have called for the establishment of this Society, its objects and views, the progress which it has made, and the hopes of success which it entertains.

Our opinion of the state of the Poor, and of the evils which our present conduct towards them, with the existing system of poor-laws, have brought and must bring on the country, is well known. From this source, mischiefs may flow which demand more consideration than the Legislature and country-gentlemen seem disposed to allot to it. The latter, intent on the inclosure of commons and wastes, appear not to be sufficiently aware that to deprive the Poor of all their resources, and to leave them only the solitary expedient of subsisting by the stipend of daily labour, will eventually make them a burden, and create the *worst kind of waste on landed estates*. By thus proceeding with them, we shall deprive them of all forecast, and shall oblige them after a certain time of life to be pensioners on the public; and this, as Mr. B. says, is '*waste* committed on landed property in the most destructive and irreparable way. It is not the pulling down of an unnecessary hovel, nor the premature repetition of a crop of wheat corn, nor the ploughing up of a strip of pasture-ground, (the usual trivial objects of impeachment of waste,) that is the object of consideration: but it is the relaxation of the nerve of the country, the destruction of the power of cultivating the land, the conversion of the strength and energy of a people into weakness and debility, and the exchange of the means of wealth and prosperity for sources of enormous and increasing expence.'

When the Poor are forced in numbers to relinquish the humble independence of the cottage life, and to crowd themselves into Work-houses and Houses of Industry, Government should take the alarm; and gentlemen of landed property should reflect that the additions made by inclosures may not remunerate them for the heavy charges and perils, which are accumulating on them in the shape of poor-rates, and rushing in upon them from the general profligacy among the lower classes. Persuaded as we are that it is essential to their virtue, that they should be kept as much separate as circumstances will allow, we shall always be advocates for the cottage; and therefore we shall ever be disposed to speak in terms of warm commendation of the plan of this Society, which is designed to increase the economy and domestic comfort of the Poor; to hold up the industrious and thriving cottager as an object of imitation; and to promote his good habits, his welfare, and his happiness.

To assist benevolent individuals in the exercise of this wise and permanent charity, the Society endeavours to point out what good *may* be done, and *how*; and to supply details on every subject respecting the Poor. The Society congratulates itself that its labours have been already productive of some beneficial effects. It states as 'an ascertained fact respecting *parish relief*, that the best and *most economical* application of parochial funds, is that which tends to assist and encourage industry and good management among the Poor *in their own cottages*, in the care and conduct of their own families, and in placing out their children at any early age in a course of employment; and that in those parishes, where the cottager has been supplied with a good cottage and garden, and the means of keeping his cow at a fair and moderate rent, [should it not have been added, *a pig in the stye, at least?*] the labourers are the steadiest and most orderly men, the poor's-rate greatly reduced, and the value of the landed estates much improved.'

We apprehend that Mr. Bernard's praise of soup-shops does not accord with his approbation of the cottage-system. The former may be adapted to manufactories, but the village poor should be encouraged to cook their own meals. If we do not accord with him on this and every point, we sincerely subscribe to his general sentiments and ideas; and we are decidedly of opinion that a generous and liberal conduct towards the Poor is recommended strongly by motives of the soundest policy, as well as by the dictates of the purest conscience.

Ideas of rural beauty, propagated among country gentlemen by Mr. *Capability* Browne (as he has been called), and his successors, have perhaps contributed greatly to the destruction of cottages. They have been termed *eye-sores*, and the first opportunity has generally been taken to demolish them: but it should be considered that they are not *necessarily eye-sores*, though they may become so through the unavoidable neglect of the distressed occupiers, and through a want of attention from the rich to the comforts of the poor. The cottage may be made a very picturesque object; and gentlemen would greatly improve their parks and paddocks by skirting and dotting them, under the direction of taste, with small picturable habitations for their labourers;—and surely it would gratify their benevolent feelings, to observe the accordance of their own pleasures with the accommodation of the indigent! We have often wished that some of our men of landed property would set the example of erecting a *picturesque village*, by so grouping a number of small and cheaply constructed cottages, as to produce an effect which would at once please the eye and warm the heart. There are persons enough in this country, who possess the means of making such an experiment.

The papers contained in the several Reports constituting this second volume are of different merits and importance: but they record a variety of useful experiments and ideas, which may assist the well-disposed in their exertions in behalf of the Poor. Thirty distinct communications are given, together with an Appendix, containing sixteen more; among which are an account of the management of the Poor at Hamburgh;—of a Society established at Lymington in Hampshire, for the benefit of distressed females;—of a Sunday friendly Society for the aged Poor, at Winston;—of a Charity for the relief of lying-in women and sick persons at Tottenham High-Cross;—of a provision for cottagers keeping cows at Humberston;—of a Society at Wendover for encouraging prudence and industry;—of a Society at Dublin for promoting the comforts of the Poor;—of the Bath Repository;—of a provision of Fuel for the Poor at Lower Winchendon;—of a Society at Clapham;—and of Mr. Dale's cotton mills at New Lanerk in Scotland. The Appendix contains Dr Ferriar's Advice to the Poor, and directions respecting the Management of the Dying;—twelve Golden Rules;—account of a Cottage and Garden near Tadcaster;—and a Paper on the Comforts of the Poor.

Even charity itself may be romantically pursued, and some of the hints and plans here suggested may be open to objection: but the general principle pervading these communications is excellent, viz. that no effectual relief can be extended to the Poor independently of their own exertions, and that the best mode of assisting them is by leading them to habits of frugality and forethought.

Besides this volume, the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth Reports are published; and we shall take due notice of them when the third volume is completed.

Art. VIII. *The History of Scotland*, from the earliest Times to the Æra of the Abolition of the hereditary Jurisdictions of Subjects, in the Year 1748. By Robert Heron. Six Vols. 8vo. 2l. 8s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1799.

If the magnitude of a work, or the confidence of its author, were to be considered as a proof of its merit, our duty on the present occasion would form a very agreeable employment: for none of our readers can doubt the importance of this subject, and the elaborate discussions which it requires; and, if they should be induced to examine the production, they will immediately perceive that Mr. Heron asserts his claim to the gratitude and admiration of his contemporaries, with the full conviction of success. As critics, however, we are compelled to require other criteria of talents; and the testimony of the writer in his own favour must be rejected by a court of criticism, as inadmissible evidence. If his assertions could properly be considered as proofs, we should feel little difficulty in assigning to Mr. Heron an elevated station among historians; and, at the same time, we should be forced to degrade many writers from that rank to which they have been raised by the general voice of the public. He is not, indeed, more liberal of praises on himself, than of animadversions on others: but in each case he is equally unfortunate, as both his commendation and his censure are alike unmerited.

The necessity of examining these volumes has been imposed on us by the duty which we owe to the public; and which also compels us to observe that the labour of the examination has not been relieved by any pleasure, nor compensated by any instruction. The language is inelegant and inflated, the composition is involved and obscure, the sentiments are trite and common place, and the facts are injudiciously arranged.—Having expressed this opinion of the work, we shall not long detain the attention of our readers on so ungrateful a subject, but shall satisfy ourselves with reporting the contents of each volume.

The first book, which is divided into two sections, presents the History of the Romans, the Caledonians, the Britons, the Picts, the Scots, the Anglo-Saxons, and the Danes in Scotland, from the earliest times to the accession of Malcolm Canmore. The second book, completing the first volume, extends to the death of Alexander III. This sovereign was succeeded by his grand-daughter Margaret, who was then an infant, and in a foreign country. The appointment of a regency was thus rendered necessary; and the third book of this work relates the events which took place in Scotland from that period to the death of Robert Bruce: one of the busiest and most interesting periods included in the annals of that country. After having discussed the military occurrences, the author proceeds in a separate section to give a view of the labours, the knowlege, and the enjoyments of the Scots during the latter part of the thirteenth century, and the beginning of the fourteenth. In this part, which terminates vol. II. many curious and amusing particulars are collected: but the materials, though in themselves valuable, are disposed to little advantage. In the IIId volume, the history of the national transactions of the Scots, civil and military, is continued for the space of more than two hundred years, from the accession of David Bruce, to the death of James III.; with the history of their labours, knowlege, and enjoyments in private life, for more than one hundred years, viz. from the accession of David Bruce to the return of James I. out of his captivity in England.

Volume IV. is occupied in detailing the important events which occurred in the interval between the death of James III. and the accession of James VI. to the English throne. In this portion of the work, Mr. Heron considers the conduct of the lovely but unfortunate Mary; and he is decidedly of opinion that she was an accomplice with Bothwell in the murder of Darnley, whose misfortunes alone have secured to him the attention of posterity. No light is thrown by this writer on the mysterious circumstances attending the conspiracy of Gowrie; an event which still remains unexplained. Dr. Robertson intimates that it probably originated in a desire of Queen Elizabeth to be mistress of James's person, and that no hostile intentions were harboured against his life. The good character of the Earl of Gowrie and his brother gives countenance to this conjecture; and it is in some degree supported by the manners of the times, in which such adventurous attempts were not unfrequent. Of this description was the enterprise called the *Raid of Ruthven*, planned and conducted, a few years before, against the same monarch by the father of these young men, who was tried and executed for his treasonable machinations. Mr. Heron supposes 'that astrology, the folly of the age, to the study of which the young Earl of Gowrie was addicted, had impelled him in concert with his brother, to employ these unequal and fruitless means to revenge their father's fall, and to procure their own aggrandizement!'

Volume V. is divided into two parts, (each making a volume,) and commences 'with an account of the local circumstances; and of the labours, knowlege, and enjoyments of the Scots from a short time before the middle of the fifteenth, to the end of the sixteenth century;' and it proceeds with the history from the period of James's accession to the throne of this country, to the accomplishment of the Revolution.

In the second part of the fifth volume, the history is carried down from the year 1688 to 1748.—In one of his advertisements to the public, the author says; 'with the fifth volume will be published a *Catalogue Raisonnée* of all the printed books and MSS. which I have used in the composition of this work, with particular statements of how much and what I have derived from each.' This promise, which has not been fulfilled, was probably suggested by Mr. Gibbon's proposal to Mr. Cadell*, of giving, in a supplement to his History, a critical review of all the authors whom he had used or quoted. How valuable would such a production have been from so masterly a pen as that of Gibbon; and how much reason has the world to regret the existence of circumstances that prevented the completion of such an undertaking!

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* See Gibbon's Miscell. Works, vol. i. p. 686.

We shall now dismiss this article, with observing that, though the present work is not calculated to advance the reputation of the writer, it may facilitate the labours of future historians; and that, though Mr. Heron is chargeable with the faults of precipitation and arrogance, he is intitled to the praise of recommending virtuous examples to the notice of posterity, and of uniformly supporting the cause of morality.

ART. IX. *An Account of the Irides or Coronæ which appear around, and contiguous to, the Bodies of the Sun, Moon, and other luminous Objects.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1799.

A FORMER publication by the author of this tract was introduced to our readers in the 32d vol. (N. S.) of our Review, p. 12. Perhaps we then appeared unjustly frugal in our commendations, as the experiments certainly were skilfully contrived, and the observations were judicious: but, from a want of arrangement, of precision, and of perspicuity, we frequently found ourselves in a dim and doubtful light, unable distinctly to perceive the meaning of the writer, and the object of his work. In the treatise now before us, similar defects again occur; and if our former animadversions caused a momentary emotion of anger, they have failed in producing amendment. Still, however, we understand the author better; not because he has written with superior clearness and precision, but because we are more accustomed to his manner and his ideas.

The irides are distributed into four sorts. In the first, is the iris seen contiguous to the bodies of the sun and moon: in the second, is the iris of 45 degrees diameter: in the third and fourth, are the irides commonly known by the names of primary and secondary rainbows. An investigation of the latter species of irides is not the present purpose of this author: but, without stating any precise objection, he censures the faulty explanation of them which has been given by preceding philosophers. The irides of the first sort alone are the subject of discussion in the pamphlet before us:

'These irides, (says the writer,) or coronæ, as they have been commonly called, appear of many concentric orders and circles of colours, close around and contiguous to the sun and the moon, and sometimes around the brightest of the planets and fixed stars.

'Close by the body of the luminary, and adjoining thereto, appears a circle of greyish black, greyish blue, or faint diluted white, becoming, or changed at a small distance from the object into, a white of considerable breadth and intensity, terminated by slender circular breadths of yellow and red; succeeded by rings of violet, blue, green, yellow, red; green, diluted yellow, red; diluted green, diluted red. Frequently, by mixture of the colours of the first and second orders, the red of the first becomes more crimsoned, and the colours of the second order appear to be only green, yellow, and red; frequently the colours of the third order are only diluted green, and red; and sometimes of the third, and sometimes of the fourth order, only the extreme red is exhibited discontiguous from the other circles, by the dilution and evanescence of the other colours of the same order.

‘ Of these circles and orders, the two first orders are most frequently seen, the third less frequently, the fourth most rarely. Every night, when the moon shines with something more than half a face, and thin white fleecy clouds pass over her, they may occasionally be observed; or they may be seen in the day, whenever clouds of the same kind pass over the surface of the sun, by receiving the sun's image through a small hole into a darkened chamber, upon a sheet of white paper. Not a cloud, however, passes over the sun and moon, through which these luminaries may be seen, without exhibiting the first order with its circular margin of diluted yellow and red. Around the brightest of the stars, through very thin clouds or in hazy weather, the first of these orders also may sometimes be seen, terminated with yellow and red externally; and not unfrequently, in consequence of these extreme colours being invisible from the faintness of the light, it appears, without them, as a broad circular border of thin diluted white light.’

larly, according to *Newton*, every way therefrom; or rather, I would state, equally diffused therefrom in quantities greater or less at different less and greater distances from the centre or axis of the same. It might therefore reasonably be doubted whether the quantity of light would, under the circumstances of existence, be sufficient for the production of the phænomenon. But it is only when the beam of light is slender that these rings of colours are produced by reflection, and therefore a slender beam would be required also for these rings by refraction. The globules of water are, however, exposed to a beam of light of greater extent than their surfaces, too considerable to exhibit these rings, and capable, if it passed through together with these rings, of mixing with, confounding, and obliterating them. But it is certain that the direct light is not sufficiently strong after passing through the globules of water to produce vision; and therefore this collateral light must be much more incapable of being seen. If the direct light passing through the globules of water could produce vision, the body of the luminary seen through them would be enlarged and dilated into a circular disc of considerable extent of white light decaying gradually, and bounded only by the invisibility of the extreme rays. But this is never known to appear.

'The direct light is also not distributable into these rings, and therefore it is to be taken for granted that the reasoning of *Newton* concerning the number of fits of the red and differently coloured rays, is intended to apply to the faint collateral light, similar to that which makes the rings of colours by reflection, and which he conceived to be similarly derived from the refracted beam passed through the globule. The fits of easy transmission and reflection, according to the *Newtonian* theory, applied to the direct beam would only produce the division of the beam into two, one reflected and one refracted, and no distribution of differently coloured beams, red, yellow, blue, into concentric rings of the same colours, with dark intervals, or of a white beam into many rings and orders of different colours. This I tried by exposing small glass globules filled with water, to the direct light of the sun, and also to beams of the sun's light of different colours passed through a glass prism, without observing any production of these rings; and their production by the separate globules is necessary to the existence of the appearance derived from the united action of all the globules.

'The doctrine, therefore, of the different fits applied to this faint light is used to no purpose, since it can only determine the qualities or properties of light which is never seen. It is certain that these fits have no existence in the nature of things, and that the phænomena by which they seem to be established are only cases of inflections.

'But, were concentric rings of different colours producible out of the direct light which passes through a globule, or the collateral light supposed to be scattered or diffused from the direct light, the concentric rings and orders of colours exhibited thereby round any luminous object would not be of the same arrangement with that which is observed, but of one exactly the reverse. Of all the rays passing out of, and of the concentric rings produced by their passage through the globule, the purples and blues would be most bent towards the axis, the reds least; the blues in the rings made by the globules would be internal, the reds external to each order. Such an arrangement of the colours and orders of the globules would produce crowns around the luminaries, of which the reds would be internal, the blues and purples external.'

After this investigation, we are presented with the true principles on which the phænomena of the irides depend, and which were laid down in the writer's former publication already mentioned. According to the inferences drawn from these principles, the rings are produced by the action of the edge of a body on light already rendered divergent by the action of another body, whose edge is parallel to and in the same plane with the edge of the first body: correspondent to the edges of the bodies used in experiment, are the edges of the globules of water between which the light passes; and from the light acted-on by each edge, arise the several rings.

The author next illustrates his principles, and shews their general application, by explaining on these grounds the rings of light seen when viewing a candle through thin flocks of wool; the crowns of colours perceived through the incrustations of ice formed on the glasses of house windows; and the rings apparent to an eye charged on its external surface with semi-pellucid humours, arising from injury, intemperance, &c.

We can only farther remark that the acute reasonings and original observations, which occur in this small pamphlet, render it worthy of notice from those whose philosophic researches are directed to this subject.

Art. X. *Additional Remarks on the Topography of Troy, &c.* as given by Homer, Strabo, and the ancient Geographers; in Answer to Mr. Bryant's last Publications. By J. B. S. Morritt, Esq. 4to. pp. 50. 4s. sewed. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

In the thirtieth volume of our Review, (N. S.) we noticed Mr. Morritt's Vindication of Homer, and Mr. Bryant's Remarks on that work. The present publication has essentially the same subject with the former: but the circumstances in which the author finds himself oblige him to descend to a vindication from Mr. Bryant's aspersions, and to furnish a reply to his objections. This task he has performed with acuteness and learning.—We extract a passage in which Mr. M. speaks of his own investigations:

'That some errors and inaccuracies exist in my delineation of the country, and must exist, I am well aware. At the time I was in the Troad I was perfectly satisfied with Chevalier's description, and had no idea of the doubts which have since been started, on a subject

which,

ich, in that situation, appeared to me incontestably decided I l no instruments with me to make a geometrical survey of the in, but I had Chevalier's map, and a compass. With these I erved the general outlines, and bearings of places, and corrected at seemed to me materially deficient; as for instance, the relative ation of the springs, and a few other points of that sort. Since ame home, I also conversed with Mr. Dallaway, who took a ond rough survey of the plain, the year after he had been there h Mr. Stockdale and myself; furnished with these materials I ld not hesitate about the map I gave, which was calculated to vey a good general idea of the plain, and was quite accurate ugh to answer the purpose for which it was wanted; but I have doubt that a more accurate survey may be taken, and I believe l still farther illustrate Homer. I must beg the reader's pardon not having done this myself; but he will recollect that I knew hing then of the doubts of English literati, or the objections Mr. ant had made to M. Chevalier; neither had I the least idea of a itroversy on this subject, much less that I should take a part in it. oped also that my engravings would in some degree compensate the inaccuracy of my map. I do not think, however, any blame aches either upon M. Chevalier or myself, for giving a map of the in and immediate environs as they *now* appear, instead of giving at Mr. Bryant seems to have expected, a map of a whole district, luding Dardanus, Cotylus, Gargarus, &c. For the relative iation of these we must refer the reader to D'Anville, and other od geographers, particularly to those who have been upon the it. Neither were we bound to conjecture the situations of other tient towns. But we have given merely the *topography* of Troy, l we have asserted that the geography of the rest of the district nishes no arms to combat our hypothesis; if it does, others may oduce them. A similar objection may be made from the closet to ery antient map. All this, you may say, is very plausible; but iy not give the country farther to the north, south, east, or west? nd then conclude that it "is not *suffered to appear*, because it uld ruin the author's plan if admitted." It is enough for me if e map is consistent with itself and with Homer. That it is at least ore like the country it represents, than any other, formed (however ingeniously) by a fire-side in England, will, perhaps, to many aders seem highly probable. Of the mistakes made in his, however, Mr. Bryant says, I have not produced one instance; when a ap taken on the spot contradicts his in almost every point, one ould think that those instances had been furnished, and perhaps in e most efficacious manner possible. Nor do I differ with M. Chelier about the situation of Tenedos; it is exactly where he placed ; but it is not in my map, which was confined to the plain; the ale I had made use of not admitting the island; and I thought the jection arising from a line in Virgil not worth notice. Virgil never is looked on as an accurate geographer, and what he says is unsupreted by other authorities. Tenedos is visible every where from e shore, and from the hills on which the Trojan tombs are found, t a range of low hills shuts out the plain from the Ægean.'

We forbear to enter into a particular examination of this work, because we do not imagine that our readers in general would be much gratified by it; and the controvertists would not thank us for our opinion, unless we discussed the question with greater zeal and fervour than our inclination and the nature of our employment enable us to display. In the following article, we are again called to this debate.

Art. XI. *Remarks and Observations on the Plain of Troy,* made during an Excursion in June, 1799. By William Francklin, Captain in the Service of the East India Company, and Author of A Tour to Persia, &c. 4to. pp. 53. 3s. 6d. Faulder. 1800.

ALTHOUGH we confess that we feel little interest in the controversy respecting the existence of Troy, yet we must also acknowlege that we have received no small entertainment from a perusal of the present tract. The narrative is not only easy, and pleasantly interspersed with poetical quotations, but it has also a farther claim to notice: it very remarkably confirms M. Chevalier's relation: so precisely, indeed, that (supposing both the accounts to be faithful) there can scarcely remain a doubt of Homer's acquaintance with the Troad. Whether the Greek bard adapted his descriptions to the locality, or whether he drew the scenes of action such as they had really been, we pretend not to say: but the two questions, which here present themselves, are perfectly distinct.

The excursion of Capt. Francklin was made in June 1799, in company with Mr. Hope. Nothing remarkable occurred previously to their landing on the Rhætean promontory, except a circumstance which introduces an observation from the author respecting the accuracy and correctness of the often questioned Baron de Tott:

> 'We visited (says Capt. F.) the Asiatic castle of the Dardanelles and inspected the cannon of enormous caliber, which placed on beds without carriages, appear too unweildy to be of any effective service or indeed to be fired off more than once. We saw likewise the famous cannon of Sultan Amurath, or Morad the II. as mentioned by De Tott, and found him correct in this account, as I have frequently done in many others. The diameter is sufficient to permit a man to sit in the inside, and the ball belonging to it is of the enormous weight of fifteen hundred pounds.'

Previously to descending into the plain of Troy, the travellers visited the tomb of Ajax; thence they proceeded to the valley of Thrymba and the Temple of Apollo; and, after having passed the valley, they crossed the range of the Callicolone Hills, from the top of one of which they had a magnificent view of the he plain of Troy, the Hellespont, the Ægean Sea, the tumulus f Æsyetes, and the island of Tenedos. The course of their ourney was then through the village of Atch Keoi, and across he Simois to the village of Bunarbashi. Ascending the heights f Troy, they took up their quarters in the house of the Aga*, nd possibly (adds our enthusiastic author) 'on the site of the alace of old Priam.' The places mentioned were visited in he same day, and were included in a circuitous route of 20 ritish miles.

Speaking of the lofty grounds behind the Aga's house, apt. F. says:

'It is here that the appellation of Ιλιον ηνεμόεσσαν, or *wind swept lium*, occurs to the mind of the spectator in full force; and when he Levanters blow, the flurries coming over the broken ridges of da, must here be experienced in their utmost violence. Placed on his eminence, it requires no great stretch of imagination, to bring n review, the transactions of the war, and the fate of Ilium, as sung by the divine bard.

'The several barrows are all in view, all in the positions they ught to occupy, and as they impressed on my own mind with so ll a conviction, as not to leave the smallest doubt remaining, but at I stood on the very site of Troy, or near it, so I cannot think possible, that any one can personally view the evidence afforded y the disposition of the country around, and these monuments in rticular, without complete satisfaction in his mind, that Homer scribed this scene from characters that are indelible. Barrows t is true are common to other countries: but that we should have rising ground for the position of the city, a plain suited to the conflicts of the armies, sweeping down to the Hellespont, two rivers, ne on each side this plain, joining at no great distance from the sea, dded to the different barrows, all in the very places where they ought o be, cannot be the effect of chance, and are circumstances so rious, that no country could produce them all, unless it were the ery spot designed. Had I ever been so sceptical, (and doubts I rtainly had,) I could not see two barrows, one large, and one maller at Sigæum, without confessing that such they ought to be cording to the Iliad, and such their place. I could not see the hœteum marked by another barrow, without reflecting that Ajax as encamped on the left of the line, and that on the left he ought to ve been buried. I could not view the barrow of Æsyetes, marked ut by Strabo, and fixed at the most advantageous point for reconnoitring, without recalling the assignment made of it by Homer this purpose: but above all this, when I saw the barrow of ector at the back of Troy, still marked by the pile of stones, hich Homer allots to this, and this only, I could not help thanking r. Morritt for pointing out this peculiarity to my notice, and I ust add my testimony to his, that such is the fact, the stones are piled as his drawing represents them, and their appearance is not exaggerated. Now that all these circumstances should be united in the space of a few miles by accident, and that they should all correspond with Homer, is beyond the power of calculation, if the fact were not true; no other spot in the world could be accommodated to the description, or answer to the particulars required, and if this spot does answer with so much precision, both generally and specially, here and no where else must we look for Troy.'

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* The Turkish deputy, who acts under the Pasha of the district.

The next paragraph we refrain from quoting only because it does not bear on the point in question: but it reflects much credit on the critical taste and feeling of the writer. It relates to a passage which he extracts from the Iliad, 24th book, in which Helen so beautifully describes the amiable parts of Hector's character *. We know not any parts of this admirable poem, so proper to bring forwards in refutation of Voltaire's assertion that Homer is never pathetic.

To prove that the remark relative to Troy, "*etiam periere ruinæ*," is not true, Capt. F. says:

'The idea entertained by many persons that there are no remains of a city on the site of Troy, or that the ruins themselves have perished, is not altogether well founded; on the contrary about the Acropolis, and the environs of the city, they certainly are to be found; at Bunarbashi in the *Aga*'s house and in the village below, are many large blocks of marble, columns of red and grey granite, and capitals of columns, one of which we found in the stable of the Aga's court yard. It appeared to have formed part of a pillar of a temple of Jupiter, from the device of an *eagle* which it contained, and may have been brought hither from some of the temples in the neighbourhood, as its capital which is Ionick precludes us from assigning it to remote antiquity. But on the hill of Bunarbashi is an immense block of very coarse marble, with some devices rudely executed, particularly the head of a cypress tree; it looks as if it had belonged to a fountain, and is rude enough for any age.

'In a cottage near the sources of Scamander, we found a piece of marble about two feet high, no doubt of great antiquity, it had the figure of a warrior, well executed in *alto relievo*; of this figure Mr. Hope's painter took a drawing, and we regretted much that its size prevented our getting it on board our ship.'

On the summit of Gargarus, Capt. Francklin bears testimony to the accuracy of Mr. Morritt's reasoning:

'When we were upon this spot, we had Homer and the work of Morritt in our hands, we examined the poet by the comment, and could not refrain from giving our testimony to the fidelity of both. Gargarus is a summit that not only overlooks all that Homer assigns to the prospect, but is really the highest point of the whole ridge, and commands a view to the north and south west, and when we figured to our imagination, Jupiter sitting here, and Neptune watching his motions from the heights of Samothrace, with the Plain of Troy between them, we felt from the sublimity of the poet, the superiority of their rank, as clearly as the subordinate situation of the other deities, when one party sat on Callicolone, and the other on the retrenchment of Hercules to contemplate the re-appearance of Achilles in the field. I have heard since my return, that Mr. Morritt's assumption of this height for the Gargarus of the poet, has been doubted, and that his measures from Lectum have been supposed to be erroneously taken from the distance between Lectum and the city of Gargarus rather than the mount. This is a question I cannot enter into, but Homer describes Gargarus as the highest point of Ida, and such was the summit on which we stood; the view we had to the west was also correspondent with the description of the poet, and the view we took to the north was across the Hellespont into Thrace, and might well be extended to the Glactophagi, Hippemolgi, and Tartar tribes (in that age) on the Danube, if we had had the same powers of vision as the deity is endowed with in the poem.'

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* Αλλ' ουπω σευ ακουσα κακον επος, ουδ' ασυφηλον, &c. Ω. l. 767.

As the controversy concerning Troy is not likely soon to terminate, this small publication will be read with avidity; but, as we have already observed, it has other recommendations than those which the circumstances of the moment bestow on it.

Art. XII. *The Select Works of Antony Van Leeuwenhoek*, containing his Microscopical Discoveries in many of the Works of Nature. Translated from the Dutch and Latin Editions published by the Author. By Samuel Hoole. Parts II. and III. 4to. 10s. 6d. each. Nicol, &c. 1800.

THE first part of this elegant publication was announced in our 29th vol. N.S. p. 408. The second and third, now before us, complete the first volume; and the remainder is promised to appear in an equal quantity.

Part II. commences with an account of an animalcule, or small living creature, sometimes found in the livers of sheep and other beasts. This tract was not written by Leeuwenhoek, but by an inhabitant of Leyden, named Bidloo: it was first printed in the Dutch edition of the present work, and is now translated for the assigned reason of the interesting nature of its subject. The same motive has influenced the translator in collecting, from several gentlemen, corroborations of the opinion of Bidloo concerning the cause of the disease:

'Since the perusal of this Essay, the translator has had opportunities of conversing with several judicious gentlemen, who are conversant in the grazing of sheep, from whom he has collected the following particulars:

'That in very wet seasons, particularly towards the latter end of the year, a species of grass springs up in the low and wet lands, by feeding on which, the sheep are supposed to contract the distemper called the Rot. That, if the rains do not abound, until after the winter frost has been experienced, the sheep are not then obnoxious to this disease, but otherwise, if a wet season precedes the frost; and lastly, that sheep infected with this disease, do, for a time, appear fat and healthy, but, when the disorder gets to a height, they fall away rapidly.

'These particulars seem to prove, that the disease called the Rot in sheep, does in fact proceed from the animal described in the preceding essay, which, being bred in the water, and adhering, with its eggs, to the grass growing in watery places, is swallowed by the sheep. And, it is probable that when the frost precedes a wet season, the animalcules and their eggs are killed by the frost, and consequently the sheep escape: we may also conclude, that while this noxious animalcule is in an infant state in the bowels of the sheep, it may not be particularly injurious, but when it arrives at a size to prey upon the liver, first, a sickness, and wasting in the animal, and afterwards, death must ensue; and the translator has been informed by a gentleman's gamekeeper, that he has frequently found hares, dead of this disease, and that upon opening them, hundreds of the animalcules were found in their livers.

'These particulars the translator thought proper to notice, leaving it to those who are qualified, to exercise their medical skill in the discovery of a remedy for this fatal distemper.

'The animalcule before described is called in some parts of England a fluke, in others a loop, but most generally a flounder, probably from the resemblance it bears to the fish of that name.'

We now come to an *Introduction*, by the translator; in which he explains what is to be understood by the term *nature*, and shews how *matter* must be perpetually influenced by the unremitting agency of the Deity: so that when we say that the world is continued by the *laws of nature*, the remark is the same as if we observed that it is continued by the ceas-less operation of God.—Mr. Hoole has quoted the opinions of three great men, Newton, Boyle, and Mead, concerning the meaning of the words *nature*, *matter*, &c. Yet, after all, a sceptical and exact reasoner would, without great difficulty, find some flaw in these argumentations; something not continued in the concatenation of proofs; or some arbitrary assumption of a disputable principle. Indeed, it is on account of the insufficiency of human reason on these subjects, that the pious inquirer stops short in his pursuit, and reposes on the mild and temperate conclusion that what are mysteries were intended to be such, and were purposely placed by a Divine Author beyond the reach of human investigation.

The Essays of Leeuwenhoek, contained in this part, are as follow:

'On the circulation of the blood: that it is not discoverable by the sight in an human body, nor in the bodies of terrestrial animals:

ame completely seen in fishes, and the nature of it particularly ibed.'

Of the formation of the teeth in several animals: the structure e human teeth explained, and some of the disorders to which the are liable accounted for.'

On Coffee.'

On Vinegar.'

On the Scorpion.'*

Of the Oak Gall, or Gall Nut: that it is not a fruit, but an scence produced on the leaves of the oak, by means of an in- the manner of its formation particularly described: a similar scence produced in like manner on the thistle.'

The author's opinion respecting the animalcule found in the of sheep infected with the disease, commonly called the Rot.'

The author's opinion and reasoning respecting the formation of species of fuel which is called Peat, and also with regard to the dug out of those places where peat is found: from whence he occasion to propose and discuss a question, whether the sea may in process of time, become more elevated in respect of the land.'

On the effects of acids in the stomach, and the use of fish diet, a particular description and examination of the liquor or sub- e named Runnet, which is used in the making of cheese.'

Of the Snail or insect found on the vine, also of the nature of , and whence its virtue proceeds; with some observations on the er in which different animals emit their poison.'

On Wheat, and the manner of its vegetation; the nature of the al component parts of that grain explained, and their figures de- ed, as seen by the microscope.'

he contents of Part III. are:

Of the Cocoa Tree, with its fruit, commonly called the Cocoa Nut.'

On Hops.'

On Cochineal.'

An account of some pieces of Amber presented to the author; of a substance resembling burnt paper, reported to have fallen of the clouds in Courland.'

Of the herb Periwinkle, wherein the opinion that it does not any seed, is refuted.'

Of the root named *Pareira Brava.*

On the formation of the crystalline humour of the eye, in us animals, birds, and fishes.'†

On the internal formation of an ox's tongue: and on that of the , in animals, fowls, and fish.'

On the eye of a whale, with the author's observations on the ure of the sea-water at great depths.' ‡

To this paper an addition is made by the translator, extracted Dr. Mead's Essay on Poisons.

To this paper is added a long extract from Mr. Adams's Essay ision.

We wish that the translator had corrected or animadverted on the hilosophy contained in this essay.

'Of the Quills used in writing, and their feathers.'

'On Human Hair, and the hair and wool of animals.'*

'An extraordinary quantity of fish on the sea coast near Delft, noted by the author, with reasons assigned by him for the same.'

'Of the Nutmeg: the young plant in it discovered: the root of the nutmeg-tree examined and described; with some hints from the author respecting the best method of preserving nutmegs from being injured by insects.'

'On damaged Mace, commonly called white Mace; the cause from whence this defect arises, shewn to be an insect which feeds on the internal parts of the mace, with a particular description of that insect; and some farther account of the nutmeg.'

The matter of the present selection has been so long known and so frequently considered, that we have been very sparing of criticism relative to the accuracy of M. Leeuwenhoek's observations, and the soundness of his philosophy; and we have given a list of the contents only to excite or to revive curiosity.

We cannot express our entire approbation of all the additions made by the translator. We think that references to the works of those authors, who have treated the subjects here discussed, would have been better than the quotations themselves; since, by mixing the thoughts and experiments of philosophers, their characters are liable to be confounded.

ART. XIII. *A concise View, from History and Prophecy, of the great Predictions in the Sacred Writings, that have been fulfilled;* also of those that are now fulfilling, and that remain to be accomplished. By Francis Dobbs, Esq. Member for the Borough of Charlemont in Ireland. In Letters to his Eldest Son. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Sael and Co. 1800.

AFTER having taken a survey, more rapid than accurate, of the state of the world at different periods and in different nations, from the creation to the close of the 18th century, the author of this work proceeds to state his own ideas of the condition of mankind in future ages, which he professes to derive from the prophecies of the Old and New Testament. Of his application of these prophecies, we shall subjoin two or three specimens; by which the reader may judge of the contents of the volume in general, and of Mr. Dobbs's talents as an interpreter of Scripture.

Having cited several passages, which seem to predict the personal appearance of Christ on earth, the author is naturally led to inquire where and when this interesting event will take place. From the description of the stone cut out of the mountain without hands in the 2d chapter of Daniel, he infers that the appearance of the Messiah will not be in any of those kingdoms which composed the Assyrian and Babylonish, the Medo-Persian, the Grecian, or the Roman Empires. In chap. xli. v. 25 of Isaiah, he discovers that this sacred personage will appear in a country north of Judæa, which must be Russia, Denmark, Sweden, or Ireland; and, from the following texts, viz. Rev. xiv. 2. xv. 2. xvi. 16. he concludes that Ireland is to be the favoured scene of the visible manifestation of Christ. Let the doubtful reader duly consider the author's arguments. The harp of David forms the arms of Ireland: the sea of glass denotes an island: no country in the world abounds so much in fine linen: the name of the Metropolitan city of Armagh sounds very like that of the place called in the Hebrew tongue *Armageddon*; and there is a remarkable co-incidence between the Irish words Ardmaceaddon and Armageddon, and in Irish the *c* is often put for *g*.—If the reader be not yet convinced, let him advert to the following peculiar circumstances: 'all the empires of the image (to which Daniel refers) rose west of each other, and the last kingdom that completed the image was Great Britain; and the stone is first to fall on the feet of the image; so that Ireland seems to be fitted, in all respects, for this great purpose; from its being still farther west, and from its vicinity to the last toe of the image.' Besides, St. Patrick, who established Christianity in Ireland, banished all venomous creatures from the land; so that none are found there, though they have been seen in the vicinity, viz. at Port Patrick in Scotland and at Holyhead in Wales; and 'this exemption from the serpent kind is strongly emblematic, that Satan, the great Serpent, is there to meet his first deadly blow.' Again; 'the crown of Ireland is the apostolic crown'—'it has been called immemorially the land of Saints'—'its name denotes that it is to be the scourge of a wicked world'—'the Giant's causeway is an emblem of the stone of David'—'the Jews were never persecuted in any degree in Ireland, and their persecutors have been and are to be peculiarly punished.'

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* An extract from Hooke's Micrographia is added to this Memoir.

As to the time of this event, a circumstance has occurred which induces the author to believe, he says, that it will happen in this year (1800) or the next; and that is, the law enacted by the British and Irish parliaments for uniting England and Ireland into one kingdom. 'This,' says he, 'appears to me contrary to the great designs of God; for it is making Ireland a part of the image of Daniel, which was completed (as he has before shewn, in the year 408). Now if so, no imperial law will ever have force in Ireland; and as the imperial parliament may meet the 1st of January 1801, and in a month or two after pass a law that would be enforced in the ordinary course of things, I think that measure will be defeated by the appearance of the Messiah in Ireland.' It is scarcely necessary for us to observe that this period has passed; and that, up to the time of the present month (July), we have not heard of this predicted appearance.

The author has farther discovered that the attendants of the Messiah, on this occasion, will be collected from all the countries of the earth, and that their number will be 144,000. Among them will be found Moses, Aaron, David, Samuel, Daniel, the Apostles, and the Martyrs; who are not to be miraculously raised from the dead, but 'in the ordinary way to be literally born again.' Antichrist will also personally appear on this occasion; and this person is no other than Augustus the Roman Emperor, who was 'an able, polished villain, under whom was the summit of the heathen, or Satanic world.' Mr. Dobbs is persuaded 'that France is the country where that man shall appear, who leads the wicked of the world.' 'See (says he) how well all that has of late years been passing there accords with what is to come.' The retinue of this Arch-enemy will consist of millions, who will repair to his standard, and 'they will plume themselves on certain victory' over the 144,000 followers of the real Messiah. Great Britain will league for a while with the powers of Antichrist, but Mr. D. thinks that it will be the first to forsake them.

Among other peculiarities of this writer's system, one is 'that no man has lived since the flood, who was not in existence before it, and that all, both good and bad, have been born again subsequent thereto. The worst were regenerated in the line of Ham,'—'and the best were brought again into the world in the line of Abraham, his son Isaac, and his grandson Jacob.' This notion of living more than once is, in the author's opinion, the great key to the Scriptures; and he conceives himself warranted in saying 'that there is no man really sprung from Adam, and consequently from God, who made Adam, that is not written in the book of life; and destined to immortality.' The Messiah in the human part of his frame was Adam, and it pleased the Almighty to unite to the nature of Adam him who is styled his only son, before the creation of this world.—As all who sprang from Adam are to be saved, whence then proceeded those who join Antichrist, and make war against the Messiah? They are a new race, who had not their origin from God, but from Satan. Of this family, Cain was the progenitor: but Cain being the son of perdition, and the devil being also distinguished by this appellation, the devil and Cain were the same person; and accordingly, the Jews have a tradition that Cain was produced by Eve and Satan. The author has also found out two Societies, which seem to be the stocks from which the respective followers of Christ and Antichrist are to issue. The one is known by the name of the Society of Avignon, which commenced in the year 1779, and the members of which declare that 'these are the glorious times when the Messiah is personally to appear, and restore all things.' 'They affirm that all the old prophets, apostles, and martyrs are now upon the earth, and have been literally born again. They say the personal Antichrist is also on the earth, and the council of seven, who direct their affairs, declare they know him.' A Polish nobleman, who is at the head of this Society, is believed to be Moses; and another of the seven is Aaron. They pretend to an intercourse with good spirits; and the other Society, which is that of the Illuminati, hold intercourse with evil spirits, and are preparing the way for the advent of Antichrist. Mr. Dobbs had a conference with some of the members of the former; and they communicated to one another the extraordinary and similar visions with which they had been favoured: but with the latter Society he disclaims all connection.

Our readers will now, we apprehend, be able to form a competent judgment of the contents of the remaining pages of this volume; and, if they wish for farther amusement of this kind, they will there find a *satisfying* portion of it.

ART. XIV. *A Summary of Universal History;* exhibiting the Rise, Decline, and Revolutions of the different Nations of the World, from the Creation to the present Time. Translated from the French of M. Anquetil, Member of the National Institute of France, and Correspondent of the Academy of Sciences and Belles Lettres. 8vo. 9 Vols. 3l. 12s. Boards. Robinsons. 1800.

IF a reader be in search of an historical work extracted immediately from the valuable remains of antiquity, he will in vain have recourse to the volumes which are now before us; or, if he would be contented with the production of a man who has gone over the ground of modern compilations with a critic's keen eye, and who has examined it with the light which the researches of later times have thrown on many distant events, he will still be dissatisfied with this publication: but, if he should require nothing more than a mere abridgment of those compilations, he will be pleased with these volumes, which comprize an elegant, and on the whole not an injudicious abstract of this kind.

M. Anquetil's summary is divided into two parts, the antient and the modern. Each country is treated under both of these divisions. and its history is narrated, before another is introduced. The work is, indeed, a collection of the separate accounts of each distinct nation.—He who would be thoroughly acquainted with history must study it in various forms. He may cast his eye over the vast field, as it is exhibited in a chart; he may survey the universal map of it, which a narrative divided into periods furnishes: but, in order to lay the foundation of proficiency, he must peruse and re-peruse books on the same plan with the present. Let him carefully digest such productions; and then, and not till then, will he be capable of profiting from others in which a different method has been pursued. In this view, we recommend M. Anquetil's compilation, on account of its plan, to young students of history; let them make it their companion, for a considerable time; and let them not return it to the shelf, till they are complete masters of its contents.

We were sorry to find the author entering deeply into accounts which have been justly considered as fabulous, and assigning to antient history a much greater proportion of his work, than to the modern: but we were pleased to observe that he is totally free from that scepticism which has over-run all descriptions of men in France, particularly the lettered class.

As specimens of M. Anquetil's manner, we shall lay before our readers his account of the Achæan league, under the head of *antient* history; and under that of *modern*, we shall transcribe his account of the present state of Malta:

'Achaia was the centre of the most durable confederacy that has existed. The genius of its inhabitants, and those of the neighbouring countries, as well as their respective position, must certainly have been peculiarly favourable to such an association, since it began in the time of Gyges, their last king, that is to say, at the termination of the heroic ages, and continued till the reign of Alexander. When destroyed by that conqueror it was revived under the name of *the Achæan league*, and supported itself with distinguished honour, till it at length sunk beneath the enormous power of the Romans.

'This league originally comprehended all the provinces on the continent, properly called Greece; that is, Attica, Megaris, Locris, Phocis, [illegible] and Doris. It was afterwards bounded by the [illegible] and Elis.'—

'The Romans courted the favour of the Achæan league, from [illegible] as they feared it should succour Perseus king of Macedon, with whom they were at war; but when they had conquered that prince, they ceased their complaisance, or rather [illegible] those [illegible] of injustice which, in the end, rendered them masters of Greece. They not only excited the different cities to make war on each other, but even maintained fatal dissensions in the [illegible] were certain of being [illegible] They suborned the slaves [illegible] informers in their pay, and soon it became a crime to have failed in attachment to the interest of the Romans. They drew up lists of proscribed persons, and sent commissioners appointed to carry their secret sentence into execution. In a public assembly of the Achæans, one of the commissioners had the insolence to require that all those who had assisted Perseus should be previously condemned, after which he said he would name them. "Name them after they are condemned!" exclaimed the assembly; "is that justice? Begin by naming them, and let them defend themselves If they can allege nothing in their justification, we promise to condemn them." "You promise," replied the commissioner, "why all your general officers, all who have held any employment in your republic, have been guilty of that crime." Xenon, a person of great credit, and extremely respected by the whole league, then rose, and said: "I have commanded the army; I have had the honour to be the chief magistrate of the league; and I protest that I have never done any thing contrary to the interest of Rome. If any one can bring a charge against me, I am ready to justify myself; either here, before the assembly of the Achæans, or, at Rome, before the senate." The commissioner immediately laid hold of the latter expression, and said: "Since Xenon has named the senate, he and the other persons accused cannot appeal to a more equitable tribunal." He then named those who were accused, and ordered them to appear and plead their cause before the senate. They were more than a thousand in number, all men of distinguished merit, and this was their only crime.

'Their departure was a very severe blow to the Achæan league. When they arrived in Italy they were distributed in different cities, where they were kept prisoners as if they had already been condemned. The council of Achaia sent deputies to Rome to require that their cause might be heard; but the senate replied, with equal treachery and falsehood, that the exiles had been found guilty in Achaia, and had been only sent to Rome to know what punishment should be inflicted on them. The Achæans then sent a solemn embassy, which embarassed the senate; but still they answered, that it was not the interest of the Achæans that the exiles should return to their country. To another embassy, which descended to supplications, the inexorable senate gave the same refusal; and these repeated solicitations had no other effect than to render their slavery more rigid. Seventeen years passed in fruitless applications, till the exiles were reduced to about three hundred; when Polybius, who was one of these unfortunate persons, and who had rendered services to Paulus Æmilius in the education of his children, obtained, by his influence, that the affair should be brought before the senate. Cato, in complaisance to young Scipio, promised to support the petition. When it was presented, the conscript fathers were divided in their opinion; however it appeared that the majority was unfavourable; when Cato rose up, and assuming an air of great gravity, said; "The world must surely think we have nothing at all to do, to see us debating with so much warmth whether some poor old Greeks shall be buried in Italy or in their own country."

'This pleasantry made the senate ashamed of disputing any longer, and the petition was granted. Polybius was for supplicating the senate to decree that, on their arrival in Achaia, they should be reinstated in all their offices and dignities; but before he presented his request he asked the advice of Cato, who said to him, with a smile: "Polybius, you do not imitate the wisdom of Ulysses: you wish to return into the cave of the Cyclops, to fetch away some wretched tatters you have left there."

Concerning Malta, he thus writes:

'The island of Malta was inhabited formerly by the nymph Calypso. Though nearer to Sicily, from which it is only fifteen leagues distant, it is assigned, without any just reason, to Africa, its distance from which is fifty. It is about twenty leagues in circumference. The soil is barren, being composed partly of sand and partly of rock, covered with very little earth, full of stones, and unfit for the cultivation of any kind of grain. It produces figs, melons, oranges, and honey. To the north-west, separated from it by a channel a league and a half in breadth, lies the island of Goza, which is about eight leagues in circumference; and in this channel are the small isles of Comin and Comino. The former is a league in circumference; the other is less. Lampedosa, five or six leagues in circumference, lying at the distance of twenty-five or thirty leagues from Malta, is barren and uninhabited.

'The southern coast of Malta has neither road nor harbour. Some good harbours, however, are found to the east; and there is an excellent port divided into two parts, commanded by fort St. Elmo. When it was taken possession of by the knights it contained only one city, with a few towns, and about twelve thousand inhabitants. At present it has four cities inclosed by walls. The hamlets have become villages; and the villages large towns. The air is exceedingly salubrious, being always cooled by the sea-breezes. There are no rivers in the island; but it has excellent springs: water is collected also in cisterns. Every creek and corner where an enemy might enter is strongly fortified and guarded. The cities, which are built with taste and elegance, are well defended also. They contain beautiful churches, large and commodious hospitals, arsenals supplied with all kinds of stores; in a word, every thing necessary either in time of peace or of war.

'The character given of the Maltese ladies implies, to speak in the softest terms, that they are fond of gallantry. I do not mean to say that they are amorous, but that they are tempting. Their husbands are not much pleased with this conduct; which indeed is very little directed towards them. They are jealous: but before marriage they carry about their intended spouses with confidence to the most public places, and affect to allow them a great deal of liberty. When married, however, they are narrowly watched, and those who approach them, even if they are knights, have to dread the dagger or poniard. The Maltese are robust, healthful, lively, brave, and warlike. A signal given by firing three cannons is sufficient to call forth twenty-five thousand men, all well armed, and to place each at his post, with which they are thoroughly acquainted. They are said to be of Arabic extraction, and they speak that language; but in the towns the most common dialect is the Italian. The Maltese subsist by the culture of a few productions, and by commerce; but what contributes most to the flourishing state of their island is the residence of the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, called commonly the knights of Malta.'

The knights having been expelled from Rhodes, we are told that

'After many negociations, in which the disinterestedness of Charles V. does not appear to much advantage, he ceded to them the island of Malta, under the burthensome condition of their undertaking the defence of the city of Tripoli, which required a strong garrison and great expence. The grand-master, not being able to do any thing better, accepted the proposed terms. The order took possession of the island in 1530; and acquired from it the name of the knights of Malta, which they still retain. Villiers de l'Isle Adam employed himself in fortifying the island, which he found in a defenceless state, and died at a very advanced age. The following epitaph was inscribed on his tomb: "Here lies virtue, victorious over fortune."

'The precations taken by l'Isle Adam to fortify the new residence of the order, served to defeat a second enterprize of Soliman. Being incensed to find that these pretended pirates, of whom he wished to clear the neighbouring seas by taking Rhodes, continued to infest them, he gave orders to Sinan Bassa, whom he had sent to besiege Tripoli, to destroy in his passage that nest of robbers; but when Sinan had landed and considered attentively the castle of St. Angelo, and the bulwarks, he said to the corsair Dragut, who pressed him to begin an attack: "Dost thou see that castle? The eagle certainly could not place its nest on the summit of a steeper rock; to reach it we ought to have wings like the eagle, for all the troops in the world would never be able to force it." That he might not, however, entirely disoblige Dragut, Sinan ravaged the island and laid siege to the capital; but the gallant resistance of the inhabitants obliged him to retire.

'Soliman still made against the order in 1565, under John de la Valette, the forty-seventh grand-master, the last important attack which it experienced. A man who should sit down in his closet, to imagine the most unexpected and singular events that could take place, in the course of a siege, would not be able to invent any more extraordinary than those which have been traced out by the historian of Malta. He did not resolve to write this kind of romance till after waiting a long time in vain for the real memoirs which had been promised him; and he said when they arrived: "They are too late; I am sorry for it; my siege is completed." This anecdote, if true, may serve to keep us on our guard against those historians who are too fond of panegyric; but though the details may be heightened, it is certain that greater firmness, bravery, and activity could not be displayed, than were exhibited by the grand-master and his knights. Lavalette was wounded in the breach, and when some of his friends wished him to retire, he replied: "At the age of seventy-one, can I finish my life more gloriously than by dying with my brethren?" The Turks being repulsed with the utmost bravery, withdrew never again to appear on that land, which had been drenched with their blood; and Lavalette on the principal emplacement, the theatre of his glory, built a town, which, after his own name, he called Lavalette. The convent and habitation of the knights were removed thither. In order that the work might not be interrupted, when money failed, they paid in copper, which was afterwards called in and the full value given for it. The inscription on it was *Non æs, sed fides*: it is not the metal, but confidence.

'In 1724, a truce was concluded with the Turks for twenty-one years, subject to renewal if the parties should think proper. While it continued, the Maltese were to enjoy, in the states of the grand seignior, the same privileges as the French. They stipulated also for the exchange and ransoming of slaves. The sultan agreed not to give any assistance to the Barbary states; and the treaty was to be void when any of the Christian princes were at war with the Porte. Malta has lately surrendered to the French, and in all probability the order will be destroyed for ever.'

In printing this work, it would have been much more agreeable and useful if the head-line of each page had been made to indicate the subject under discussion, instead of repeating throughout the general title of *Universal History*.—This is an useless custom among Printers.

ART. XV. *Essays on the Venereal Disease and its concomitant Affections.* Part II.*: containing additional Evidence, with critical and practical Remarks on the new saline antisyphilitic Remedies; and an Answer to some Objections made against the former Part. By William Blair, A.M. F.M.S. Surgeon to the Lock Hospital, Asylum, &c. 8vo. pp. 352. 6s. Boards. Johnson. 1800.

In this volume, Mr. Blair has continued his plan of producing statements from various practitioners, to invalidate the evidence in favour of the *new remedies*, (as they are called,) in cases of syphilis. As we have already delivered our sentiments on this subject, as far as it seemed necessary to declare them, in reviewing Dr. Beddoes's late publication†, we shall content ourselves with giving a summary view of the facts mentioned by Mr. Blair; leaving our readers to draw their own conclusions. With the controversial part of the book we shall not interfere; and happy would it be, if we could prevail on authors to regard these literary skirmishes in their true point of view, as efforts thrown away.

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* See M. Rev. N. S. vol. xxvii. p. 455. † Ib. for June last, p. 157.

Mr. Blair commences with fifteen cases of ven. dis., in which nitrous acid, and oxymuriate of potash, were given by Mr. Macartney; and in some of these, the acid produced ptyalism. He concludes, from the result of the whole, that the new remedies are incompetent to effect a radical cure of this disease.—We are next presented with several cases from Dr. Rowley, Mr. Phillips, and Dr. Hooper, in which the acid failed to remove secondary symptoms of lues. Its power of producing ptyalism, however, is confirmed by them.—The next section contains miscellaneous evidence to the same purpose: but perhaps the cases are here too little detailed. Dr. Rollo, however, announces (without stating particulars) the cure of upwards of 70 patients, by the new remedies.—By a report of the result of 90 cases from Dr. Mitchell, garrison-surgeon at Chatham, it appears that the acid is more successful in removing the primary than the secondary symptoms. Letters from Mr. Blizard, Mr. Foote, Mr. Heaviside, and other practitioners, follow; which are in general unfavourable to the new system.

The second chapter contains an abstract of the additional evidence published by Dr. Rollo, in the new edition of his Essay on Diabetes (see Rev. N.S. vol. xxx. p. 348.): but, as this is controversial matter, we shall proceed to the next chapter;—which contains an analysis of Dr. Beddoes's *first* reports respecting the effects of the nitrous acid in syphilis. As the *last* reports on this subject, from India, have materially altered the state of the question, by bringing the anti-venereal power of the acid to the simple test of immersion, we shall add nothing to what we have already observed on Dr. Beddoes's last work, in our Review for the preceding month.

In the second section, M. Alyons's cases and observations are examined. This gentleman, it is well known, is an avowed enemy to the employment of mercury in syphilis; and he supplies its place by an oxygenated lard, prepared by boiling nitric acid with melted hog's lard, and by the internal use of nitric acid.—From a review of his cases, however, Mr. Blair dismisses them as inconclusive.

In the course of his remarks on these and other facts, the author observes that it is by applying the new remedies to the removal of secondary symptoms, that their efficacy must be ascertained.—He adds:

'I regard the enquiry into the antisyphilitic qualities of the new medicines as decided in the negative, by their proving insufficient for the *permanent* cure of a confirmed syphilis: consequently, it cannot be assumed that they are *antivenereal*, merely from their appearing to be completely efficacious in many cases of the recent disease. Various causes may concur to prevent the absorption of venereal matter, where chancres, buboes, or gonorrhœa exist; so that the constitution may possibly not become infected, under any common plan of treatment, nor even in some totally neglected patients. This remark has often been confirmed in my own practice: and I lay considerable stress upon this fact, because the issue of the present controversy very much depends upon it: though I do not infer from thence, that mercury (a true antisyphilitic remedy) may be always dispensed with in primary symptoms; nor that, "in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, the disease cures itself." But the conclusion I draw from the success of numerous trials made with the acid and oxygenated muriate of potash, in primary symptoms, is—that topical means of cure, accompanied with appropriate internal remedies, will very frequently, if not generally, supersede the necessity of employing mercury. Perhaps this rule may be applied to a much greater extent than we have hitherto suspected; and I think the idea is strengthened by the consideration that ALL the local symptoms which appear "post coitum cum fœda muliere" (to use the words of an old writer) existed, and were cured without mercury, long before the *lues venerea* had been witnessed in any part of Europe.'

In a controversy of this nature, in which experience is quoted in contradiction to experience, and the authority of respectable names is affixed to statements of the most opposite tendency, it does not become us to pronounce definitively. A short time must settle the question; and we shall only add that, however the contest may terminate, the public are under great obligations to the writers on both sides, who have exerted so much industry and attention in order to bring it to an issue.

ART. XVI. *Observations on the Effects of various Articles of the Materia Medica, in the Cure of Lues Venerea:* illustrated with Cases. By John Pearson, Senior Surgeon of the Lock Hospital and Asylum, &c. 8vo. pp. 188. 4s. 6d. Boards. Callow. 1800.

AFTER the perplexity occasioned by the contradictory statements laid before the public by respectable writers, concerning the efficacy of some anti-syphilitic remedies, we receive with particular satisfaction the reports of a cool and accurate observer; whose extensive experience in venereal complaints, united with great candour and sagacity, must give uncommon weight to his testimony. Our account of this valuable work has been so long delayed by unforeseen accidents, that we now only re-echo the approbation with which its merits have been stamped by the faculty; and to such of our medical readers as have not yet seen it, we must recommend a careful perusal of the whole. A book of such importance, however, must not be dismissed by us without giving at least an outline of its contents.—In a well-written introduction, the author has displayed the absurdities and dangers of the antient methods of treating venereal complaints. In the course of his observations, he hints his opinion that the disease was not imported from the West-Indies; and he promises a complete treatise on this disease, which the able execution of the present work induces us to expect with anxiety.—Respecting the history of mercurial medicines, we meet with the following observations:

'Amidst the several discordant opinions which have been maintained and defended, concerning the most successful mode of treating Lues Venerea, the fortunes of Mercury have been various and fluctuating. With a certain proportion of medical practitioners, it maintained a steady and undiminished reputation: by many, it was disparaged and undervalued, as a mineral possessed of no decided efficacy; and, by some, the administration of it was exploded altogether. Even in the time of Morgagni, this medicine was interdicted by some of the most eminent physicians in Italy; and strong prejudices against the use of it subsisted, according to the testimony of Murray, so late as the middle of the present century.

'How far reason, or fashion, or caprice, was predominant in conducting to such a determination, I presume not to decide: certain it is, that notwithstanding the puny clamours of ignorance, the crafty discourse of interested empiricism, and even the imperious voice of authority, Mercury continues to this day the medicine commonly employed, and alone relied on, in all truly venereal cases. And, although there are many who pretend to exclude it from their nostrums, yet their perfidious declarations are occasionally betrayed by the salivating qualities of that mineral, which, in defiance of every disguise and combination, will sometimes appear, to the detection of the impostor.

'In asserting the preference due to Mercury, as an antivenereal remedy, before all others yet introduced into practice, I neither intend to deny, nor to conceal, that real inconveniencies are sometimes connected with the administration of that medicine. There are certain peculiarities of constitution, where its irritating qualities predominate over its medical ones, and where the mode of its agency seems rather calculated to distress the patient, and to injure the health, than to remove the disease for which it is exhibited: hence, it were highly desirable to acquire a medicine equally potent as an antivenereal, and not possessing certain active properties peculiar to that mineral. But this concession forms no valid objection against Mercury exclusively.

'There are other articles of the materia medica, which produce ill effects on the animal system, even when administered with the utmost skill and judgment. It is sufficiently known, that Antimony, Ipecacuanha, Peruvian Bark, Opium, Digitalis, Rhubarb, Magnesia, Honey, &c. when brought into conflict with certain idiosyncrasies, will excite great and serious mischief; the primary and direct effect of these medicines, on one or more parts of the animal system, militating absolutely against their medicinal qualities. But, exceptions of this kind make no impressions upon the minds of considerate men, unfavourable to the generally acknowleged merits of these drugs: they note the particular instances, and substitute other medicines in their stead, which possess qualities corresponding to the indication.

'The wish which I have expressed, that another medicine could be found, on which reliance could be placed, for the cure of Lues Venerea, does in no wise spring from any distrust of the sufficiency of Mercury: it originates merely from the same source which would induce me to desire, that the means of remedying every form of human misery, were abundantly multiplied.'

We could with pleasure extract much more on this subject, if our limits would permit: but we must content ourselves with transcribing the conclusion of the introduction:

'I presume that no well-informed man gives credit to a single assertion that has been made, by the writers quoted in the foregoing pages, concerning the extraordinary agency of sudorifics, of change of climate, of regimen, or of natural crises, in curing the venereal disease; yet all these vague and unsatisfactory narratives and sentiments, have been copied, or referred to, by a number of succeeding authors, without any expressions of disapprobation annexed to them. It is greatly to be regretted, that men truly learned and deservedly eminent, have been so frequently seduced into a concurrence with opinions which they never fairly examined, and have given an avowed, retained its fame during two centuries, and was once generally preferred to Mercury, Mr. Pearson thus announces the result of his own experience with it:

'The decoction of Guaiacum will often suspend the progress of certain secondary symptoms of lues venerea, for a short time; such as, ulcers of the tonsils, venereal eruptions, and even nodes; but I never saw one single instance, in which the powers of this medicine eradicated the venereal virus. It has been recommended by many people, to combine guaiacum with mercury, with the intention of improving the specific powers, and of counteracting the injurious effects, of that mineral: the advantages to be derived from this compound mode of treatment, are by no means well established; for Guaiacum is certainly no antidote against syphilis; nor have any proofs been given to the public, of its meliorating the action of mercury. When the decoction is given during the mercurial course, it sometimes seems to improve the health; but as it is very liable to produce complaints in the stomach and bowels, the palpable inconveniencies commonly surpass the uncertain advantages connected with it; and, as no previous course of the decoction renders the disease milder, nor authorizes us to rest satisfied with a smaller quantity of mercury than usual, it will seldom happen, that a satisfactory reason can be assigned, for giving the two medicines to a patient at the same time. In concluding this chapter, I would farther remark, that I have given the decoction of Guaiacum, with the best effects, to a great number of patients, in cutaneous diseases, in the ozaena, and in scrofulous affections of the membranes and ligaments; and it appears to me, that it is equally efficacious in such morbid alterations, which are not at all connected with the lues venerea, nor with the mode of treating it, as in those cases for which it has been the most highly celebrated.'

The *Radix Chinæ* is briefly noticed, as having gained a temporary reputation.

The next chapter is employed on *Sarsaparilla;* the use of which was revived about fifty years ago, by Dr. Hunter and Sir Wm. Fordyce: but Mr. Pearson has not found that this root has the power of curing any one form of the Lues; and he explains the apparent benefit derived from its use, in certain cases, in a very probable manner:

'The contagious matter, and the mineral specific, may jointly produce in certain habits of body, a new series of symptoms, which, strictly speaking, are not venereal; which cannot be cured by mercury; and which are sometimes more to be dreaded, than the simple and natural effects of the venereal virus. Some of the most formidable of these appearances may be sometimes removed by Sarsaparilla, the venereal virus still remaining in the system; and, when the force of that poison has been completely subdued by mercury, the same vegetable is also capable of freeing the patient, from what may be called, the sequelæ of a mercurial course.'

This opinion is confirmed by several cases, which well deserve the attention of practitioners.

Of *Mezereum*, the author speaks less favourably, and he seems to rate its usefulness very low.

The *Cinchona* is mentioned as adapted to those circumstances of the disease, in which venereal sores are disposed to take a gangrenous form.

The pretended antisyphilitic powers of *Opium* are here rejected; and its effect, as an auxiliary to mercury, is justly ascribed to its power of soothing pain, and lessening irritation.

Cicuta is rejected by Mr. Pearson as an antisyphilitic, but it is said to be useful when sores have lost their syphilitic character, and owe their duration to other causes.

Several other reputed remedies, such as *Sassafras*, *Lobelia syphilitica*, &c. are dismissed with a summary notice of their inefficacy.

The *Volatile Alkali*, which was warmly recommended several years ago by M. Peyrilhe and others, proved, with Mr. Pearson, to possess the power of suspending some symptoms, but to be inadequate to the removal of the disease.

Mr. Pearson has given the *Muriated Barytes* with advantage, in some cases, in which he could not at first decide whether the disease were venereal or not: but he places no dependance on this medicine for the ultimate cure.

The author introduces his remarks on certain preparations of *Mercury*, with some very sensible and candid observations:

‘Those who are persuaded of the existence of antivenereal virtues in all, or in any of those articles of the materia medica which have been mentioned in the preceding pages, probably, may not deem the facts therein recited, such as to require them to yield up the opinions they have formed.

‘They may contend, since I have conceded the power of suspending the progress of Syphilis, and of conferring a temporary benefit at least, upon venereal patients, to the greater part of the medicines taken notice of, that this concession amounts to an acknowledgment of their specific qualities; and that, if they really do good, and successfully oppose the destructive progress of the virus, though with certain limitations, they may, when conjoined with Mercury, increase its medicinal virtue, and give more certainty to its action on the animal system.

‘It may likewise be alleged farther, that the very same species of arguing which I have considered as valid, when employed against the specific efficacy of the various medicines taken from the vegetable, mineral, or animal kingdoms, may be retorted with equal advantage against the certain efficacy of Mercury, in venereal complaints; since relapses often occur, where that antidote has been employed; and instances frequently present themselves, where new venereal symptoms appear, during the continuance of a mercurial course.

re is much truth contained in these allegations; and it can
o surprise, if persons possessed of few opportunities of com-
he medicinal powers of Mercury, with those of other reme-
uld be induced to conclude, that facts like these, very fairly
Mercury of its exclusive claim to the rank of sole specific
he Lues Venerea.

eplying to these objections, I would premise, that Mercury
ered in any form, or after any method, or under any circum-
which ignorance or caprice may suggest, is not a certain an-
hat is, an infallible remedy, against Lues Venerea. When
icine is under the direction of an unskilful man, it will fail of
a cure, perhaps more frequently than it will succeed; and,
of considerable consequence to the welfare of the diseased
he complaint will be generally exasperated by it, and rendered
ractable, than if no Mercury at all had been given.'—
opportunities of administering Mercury, have not extended
han twenty thousand cases; and I feel myself fully autho-
assert, that it is a remedy always to be confided in, under
m of Lues Venerea; and, where we have only that one dis-
ontend with, that it is a certain antidote, and as safe in its
as any other active medicine, drawn from the vegetable, or
ral kingdom. Let me not be misunderstood here, as if I
say, that it is a certain and safe remedy in the hands of any
undertakes to dispense it. Quite the contrary:—for a mul-
indisputable proofs might be adduced, that ignorance and
n render it one of the most precarious and mischievous me-
use.'

he contested virtues of the *Hydrargyrus Muriatus*,
the Corrosive Sublimate, Mr. Pearson appeals to the
opinion of the faculty, manifested by the disuse into
is preparation has fallen. He thinks that we ought
depend on it for the cure of secondary symptoms.
urial Fumigation is reckoned useful only as a topical ap-
.

nsuing chapter contains Observations on some Effects
ury. The author insists on the necessity of using fric-
gently, in order to preserve the absorption of Mer-
the skin; and this, he thinks, is always best performed
patient himself. He remarks that unrestrained expo-
the invalid to a dry, cool air, has a powerful effect in
ing the medicinal powers: but it is useful to patients
affected with the Mercurial Erethismus; of which Mr.
urnished us with a curious and interesting account, too
e inserted here.

ort history is given, in Chapter VIII., of the use of
le Acids in Venereal Cases: but Mr. Pearson has
em possessed of very little efficacy. The *Vitriolic Acid*
n employed by him to counteract some of the debili-

tating effects of Mercury, to heal ulcers which remained stationary after the venereal virus had been destroyed by mercury, and to check the mercurial ptyalism. He does not, however, regard it as a proper antisyphilitic.—The *Marine Acid* is stated to be useful in meliorating the appearance of venereal ulcers.

The last remedy considered is the *Nitrous Acid*, the properties of which have been lately the subject of so much discussion. (See the preceding article in this Review.)

Mr. Pearson relates four Cases, in which he used this medicine with apparent success: but his experience on the whole seems to have been unfavourable to its antisyphilitic powers. In the general conclusions, he thus delivers his opinion:

> ' The Nitric and Nitrous Acids have removed both the primary and secondary symptoms of Syphilis; and, in some instances, it seems that the former have not recurred, nor have secondary symptoms appeared, at the period they commonly shew themselves, when the cure has been imperfect. But, as far as my own experience extends, and that of many respectable friends, who are connected with large hospitals, a permanent cure has never been accomplished by those acids, where secondary symptoms have been present.
>
> ' The same acids, when exhibited with the utmost care and attention to many patients labouring under the primary symptoms of the venereal disease, and where they have agreed perfectly well with the stomach, have been nevertheless found inadequate to the cure of those symptoms. Indeed the failures which have occurred, both in my own practice and that of many of my surgical friends, have been so numerous, that I do not think it eligible to rely on the Nitrous Acid, in the treatment of any one form of the Lues Venerea.
>
> ' But, while I am obliged thus to detract from the supposed merits of the Nitrous Acid as an antidote against Lues Venerea, I would by no means wish to see it exploded as a medicine altogether useless in that disease.
>
> ' Where an impaired state of the constitution renders the introduction of Mercury into the animal system inconvenient, or evidently improper, the Nitrous Acid will be found capable of restraining the progress of the disease, while, at the same time, it will improve the health and strength of the patient. On some occasions, this acid may be given in conjunction with a course of mercurial inunction; and it will be found to support the tone of the stomach; to promote the appetite; to determine powerfully to the kidnies, and to counteract in no inconsiderable degree the effects of Mercury on the mouth and fauces. These advantages are by no means unimportant; and certainly entitle the gentlemen who have been active in promoting the introduction of this acid into general practice, to the gratitude of the public.'

The profession will undoubtedly feel themselves under great obligations to Mr. Pearson, for the valuable information which he has here afforded them.

Art. XVII. *A Treatise of the relative Rights and Duties of Belligerent and Neutral Powers, in Maritime Affairs*: in which the Principles of the Armed Neutralities, and the Opinions of Hubner and Schlegel are fully discussed. By Robert Ward, Esq. Barrister at Law, Author of the Enquiry into the History and Foundation of the Law of Nations in Europe to the Age of Grotius *. 8vo. pp. 190. 5s. Boards. Butterworth. 1801.

Art. XVIII. *An Essay on Contraband*: being a Continuation of the Treatise of the relative Rights and Duties, &c. By R. Ward, Esq. 8vo. pp. 83. 3s. Wright, and Butterworth.

If we do not question Mr. Ward's competence for the high literary department which he has here undertaken; if we allow that he wants not the historic knowlege, the general learning, the powers of reasoning and discrimination, nor the skill in composition, which are necessary to fill this station with propriety; yet it may be collected from an advertisement affixed to his first tract, that he is not master of one requisite which is as essential to ensure success as any of the qualifications above mentioned; viz. leisure. Had more time been devoted to these essays, we doubt not that his style would have been chargeable with fewer faults, and that the whole production would have been more clear, methodical, and concise. In reviewing his former publication, (see the note) we felt ourselves bound to bestow considerable praise on the author's talents, though we did not always coincide with him in judgment; and we expressed our opinion that it was "a work both of present merit and of future promise." This promise would probably have been fulfilled, if Mr. Ward had not now written under circumstances of haste and interruption.—We have daily occasion for lamenting this growing impropriety of sending crude compositions to the press. This mis-use of *precious* paper, this waste of the reader's time and money, this degradation of a noble art, which vitiates the taste of the age, and indisposes it from the cultivation of letters, is frequently committed without shame or compunction, and is a crying evil which calls for redress.—It is but just, however, to observe that, had not the tracts before us aspired to a rank superior to that of productions merely of the day, we should have refrained from censure, and have considered them as patriotic offerings creditable to the author's zeal and abilities. Yet, why should such sacrifices be made by members of a jealous and laborious profession, which will not be robbed, with impunity, of the time and exertions of those who follow it? Have we not Universities, the various excellencies of whose renowned sons are so great that our vernacular tongue, in all its prolixity, has recently laboured in vain to do justice to them? Shall the naval rights of Britain be assailed in the manifestoes of courts and the productions of publicists; and shall no professor, no distinguished academic, come forwards to defend his country's cause, to confute the arguments, to expose the sophistry, and to silence the declamation, which have misled rulers and people?—We are seriously of opinion that the highest fame would be gained, and the highest service would be rendered, by the man who should develope the principles of maritime war, and establish its rights on their true basis.

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* See M. Rev. N. S. vol. xxi. p. 375.

Though the doctrines with regard to neutrals, for which Great Britain contends, are not only the established tenets on the subject, but are the most founded in reason and the best adapted to practice; yet it appears to us that they are somewhat stretched by our publicists, and that their importance to this country has been over-rated. Considering, however, the unfair manner of proceeding adopted by the august champions of innovation, and that Great Britain chose to resist their efforts, we heartily rejoice in the issue which has taken place.

To return to the work before us; the heads of Mr. Ward's present and future labours are thus stated:

> 'The alleged rights of Neutrals in maritime affairs, which I propose to examine, may be divided into several propositions, or general heads.
>
> 'I. That free ships make free goods, from which a corollary is derived, that Neutrals have a right to coast from port to port, and to trade from colony to colony, and from the colonies to the mother country of Belligerents, without being liable to search or detention, except for contraband of war.
>
> 'II. That contraband is confined to articles of exclusive and immediate service in war.
>
> 'III. That war means military war and commercial peace; that is, that no private property can be the subject of prize.
>
> 'IV. That the courts of the capturing Belligerent are not competent to entertain questions concerning Neutrals captured or detained upon the high seas.
>
> 'V. That the right of search is not a natural right, and is confined absolutely to the mere inspection of papers.
>
> 'VI. That the flag of the state is tantamount to all documentary parol and ocular evidence, and excludes all right of search whatever.
>
> 'VII. That whatsoever is done under cover of the flag, immediately excludes the supposed jurisdiction of the courts of prize, and become a matter of representation between State and State.'

The first of these essays treats of Proposition I., which is considered by Mr. Ward as it relates to justice in general, to authorities, and to treaties. From the concessions of the advocates of neutral rights, he attempts to demonstrate the absurdity of the length to which they would carry these claims:

'Let us review Hubner *, in his very definition of Neutrality. 'Toute neutralité consiste dans une *inaction entière* rélativement à la guerre, et dans une impartialité exacte et parfaite, manifestée par les faits à l'egard des Belligérans; en tant que cette impartialité a rapport à cette guerre même, et aux moyens directs de la faire.'

'Again, in the fourth grand division of the duties of Neutrality, he says, 'Le grand devoir de tout Etat Neutre, c'est quil doit faire tout son possible pour établir la paix; et que pour cet effet il doit employer sincèrement ses bons offices, *afin que la partie lesée obtienne satisfaction*, s'il se peut, si non, *que du moins la guerre soit bientôt terminée.*'

'Now, I would ask the common sense of any one man, lettered or unlettered, whether it is a proof of wishing to re-establish peace, or of a sincere employment of good offices, when one of the Belligerents begins to be pressed by the other, and, by consequence, to stand in need of all his military forces, at the expence of withdrawing a portion, or perhaps the whole of the strength and vigour which had been allotted before to the arts of commerce; that a Power, which had hitherto stood by, should step in, and do that for the Belligerent which he was no longer able to do himself? To come a little more into the detail and application of this argument, let us suppose, as was the case with France, a heavy duty upon foreign freight had formed an almost fundamental law of her own commercial code; which, in times of peace, was a kind of Navigation Act, amounting to an interdiction of foreign interference; and that, of a sudden, while engaged in war, wanting her sailors, perhaps her merchant-ships, for hostile expeditions, at the same time wanting the pecuniary and other sources of her trade, which would thus be extinguished, she applied to nations calling themselves neutral, by taking off this duty, or even by bounties, to carry on this trade. Here is a proof how necessary this trade is to her exigencies, and how impossible is it to preserve it, consistently with her warfare. But where is the man of plain understanding, and uninterested in the question, who would not determine, that if the Neutral accepted the offer, that instant he interfered in the war? But Neutrals do thus interfere, nay, they arm in order to support their interference. Adieu, then, to the boasted philanthropy of the Neutral, whose great duty is to do all he can for the re-establishment of peace!—Adieu to those good offices which he is sincerely to employ, in order that the injured party in the war should obtain satisfaction! For if, according to Hubner's supposition, they can tell which is the *partie lesée*, and in this case, he should happen to be the stronger of the two, able, as well as endeavouring, to do himself right, the Neutral, by interposing his indirect, but not less powerful assistance in favour of the other, not only becomes a party in the cause, but on the very worst side of it!'

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* A Danish Civilian, who wrote during the war of 1756.

In terminating the discussion under the head of Authorities, Mr Ward observes:

'Here we close the account of the authorities upon this debated question, from the eleventh to the middle of the eighteenth century; during which long period, as far as can be judged from the positive evidence produced in its favour, and the little force of that evidence which is produced against it, the remark which was made in the outset of this section is confirmed, that the stream of the authorities is against the principle of the Armed Neutrality. I think we are nearest the truth in saying, that thus the matter rested until the middle of the last century when, for the first time, Europe saw those principles of trade, which had been for a long time forcing themselves into practice by the express stipulations of treaty, contract, and convention, at length boldly brought forward as a matter of general right, founded, as the Armed Neutrality of 1780, said, in natural justice, and, as the Armed Neutrality of 1800 says, in the indissoluble ties of natural law. In consequence of this, it was no longer necessary for Maritime States to look to their treaties for the line of their duty, or the foundation of their privileges; but the convenient theory of right set up, rose far above all law; and by seeking the divine origin of reason, equity, and the general rights of mankind, endeavoured really to persuade Belligerents, that a Neutral might interfere in the war before their faces, and screen their enemy under his cloak, at the moment when he might be falling within their power.

'These privileges, founded on right, were first claimed by the King of Prussia in the war of 1745, and were developed at large in his minister's memorial to the Duke of Newcastle, 1752.

'That memorial disclosed the real pretensions of the Monarch by whose orders it was framed in the style which it assumed; from which might be collected, in fine, all that the King of Prussia found it convenient for himself to do, although in defiance of all that any King in the world had attempted in the same circumstances.'—

'A new law was absolutely broached, and Europe, for the first time, saw, in the following abridged questions, the embryos of the Armed Neutrality.

'I. Whether Belligerent ships could stop Neutrals on the high seas, search, or carry them into port, notwithstanding, from the exhibition of papers, that no contraband was on board?

'II. Whether they could detain them under pretext that they carried enemy's property?

'III. Whether the Courts of the capturing Belligerent are competent to decide upon the legality of the capture?

'IV. Whether the King could not confiscate the Silesian debt by way of reparation for the long delay of justice, and the unjust decisions of these Courts?

'And thus, after near six hundred years silence in Europe upon this great question as a principle in the Maritime Law, during which time almost every other principle had been started, canvassed, resisted, or confirmed, amidst the thousand revolutions of commercial states; after the very question itself had long been agitated with the greatest urgency as a point of *convention* between particular nations;

it was at length fairly put forth in form, as a right belonging to all nations, claimable from nature and not from agreement, and by consequence so far superior in obligation, that treaties on the subject were to change their object, and stipulate, where change was necessary, the *reverse* of the principle, instead of the principle itself.

'England saw with astonishment this open and bold design to overturn all the received principles of her maritime rights and duties; and prepared to resist them, both by the firmness of her conduct and the soundness of her reasoning. At that time there were at the Court of London four illustrious men, learned in the laws of their country and of the world, of great integrity of life and faithfulness in all matters of representation. One of them was a judge of the realm in all matters of civil and public law, the rest the highest law-officers of the Crown. To these was confided the important charge of examining the argument by which such unheard of pretensions were to be supported, and to ascertain whether or not all Europe had been in a dream, when, in compliance with the authority of all her wise men, and the example of all her States, she had for so many ages admitted the contrary principles as received law.

'The answer which these learned men gave to all the propositions laid down by the Prussian Minister, is so well known to England, and so widely disseminated in Europe, that it is needless to repeat it. In this historical part of the argument, it is sufficient to say, that those excellent persons, to whom his Majesty had confided the defence of the maritime rights of his kingdom, most amply justified the confidence that had been reposed in them; by furnishing an answer to the Prussian allegations, of such force and authority, that the maritime law of Europe, for this time at least, stood unshaken.'—

'As a general rule, whenever the subject is considered in the abstract, the old opinion must ever prevail; and though confederacy should arm after confederacy, and treaty should succeed to treaty, until the fact actually happened, that every Maritime State of the world should agree to be bound by a different law; still the rule itself, if properly founded, would be impregnable and unassailable, wherever first principles are concerned. At the time we are treating of, Europe was so little prepared to deny this, or, what is more, to deny that the conduct of the preceding ages, and the writings of the Civilians, had been grounded entirely upon these first principles; that the Duke of Newcastle's letter, containing the answer to the Prussian Minister, was then considered, and will, I trust, ever be considered by dispassionate and disinterested persons, as a masterpiece of true and general law. Thus, at least, it was held by the greatest men of that time. Vattel, in speaking of the jurisdiction of courts in the countries which erect them, observes, that for another country to attempt to set aside their definitive sentence, is to attack the jurisdiction itself; on which account no prince ought to interpose in the causes of his subjects when in foreign countries; adding, by way of farther proof, 'la Cour d'Angleterre a établie cette maxime avec beaucoup d'évidence à l'occasion des vaisseaux Prussiens saisis et declarés de bonne prise pendant la derniere guerre.' And in the note upon this passage, he calls it, 'Un excellent morçeau de Droit de

Gens.' To this testimony of Vattel, we may add, in another country, that of Montesquieu; who, speaking of it in a private manner, as a mere literary man, in one of his familiar letters, says, it is considered as '*Reponse sans replique.*' There are, however, still stronger and irrefragable proofs of its general merit, its soundness of doctrine, and cogency of conclusion, in the conduct of Frederick II. himself. We have seen that his own minister at the Court of London had abandoned it as far as the principle immediately before us was concerned; and this probably, together with the force and weight of the answer in the minds of the different public men of Europe, induced him not to renew the subject. Certain it is, that not only these pretensions were never afterwards heard of, as founded in principle, until the Armed Neutrality of 1780; but the King of Prussia gave the most convincing proofs of conviction, by relinquishing the immediate pretensions for which he had directed the Exposition des Motifs to be prepared. The interest of the Silesian loan was no longer withheld, but from that time regularly discharged.'

On the ground of treaties previously to 1780, the matter stood thus:

> 'Not less than thirty-four treaties passed between the various Maritime States, from the year 1715 to 1780, which take no notice of the principle before us; and these, in addition to thirty-one, which were formed between 1715 and 1642, the epoch whence Schlegel, on the authority of Busch, commences the series of contrary conventions, make in all no less than sixty-five. Seven are to be added, which were actually adverse. And the maxim is, therefore, either positively denied, or totally unnoticed by as many as seventy-two. Granting, then, what is not improbable (calculating upon the ground which has here been pursued) that there are thirty-five treaties favourable to the principle, what is to become of the proof that it forms so considerable a majority as, of necessity, to make the rule for all countries not bound? The power of thus binding them, our principles have wholly denied, into whatever proportion, on the one side or the other, the treaties may be divided. But it seems not a little extraordinary, that so new a paradox should be started as law, with such fragile foundations even as to the fact!'

The inconsistent conduct of the framers and abettors of the armed neutrality affords triumphant matter to Mr. Ward, of which he does not neglect to make good use.

In his second tract, the author introduces much unnecessary and ungrateful discussion on the legality of attempting to starve a nation. We are astonished that any man's reason and humanity should suffer him to dwell on a topic not less useless than odious; since the attempt will ever be as abortive as it must be detestable. To mix extravagancies of this sort with the present cause is to betray it. Perfectly distinct from this inquiry, is the fair question whether, in certain cases, corn and other provisions may not rank under the denomination of contraband of war.

In the doctrine which the author lays down on the subject of pre-emption, the inclination to rigour again manifests itself. He maintains that this practice does not arise from any right in the neutral, but is a matter *ex gratiâ* on the part of the belligerent. We deem it more just to view this treatment in the light in which it generally has been regarded, as founded in justice; and as no more than what the neutral has an absolute right to demand, as far as his natural exports are concerned.—Mr. Ward complains that, on the subject of contraband, publicists have dealt too much in generalities. The accusation is well founded: but it is not a little curious that the complainant himself should be not less liable to it than his predecessors.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JULY, 1801.

EDUCATION.

Art. 19. *Instructive Rambles in London and the adjacent Villages*, designed to amuse the mind and improve the Understanding of Youth. By Elizabeth Helme. 12mo. 4s. bound. Longman and Rees. 1800.

THIS volume is as unexceptionable in its composition and execution, as it is praiseworthy in its object; and we think that Mrs. Helme has been successful in fulfilling the purpose expressed in her title-page, of composing a work which should 'amuse the mind and improve the understanding of youth.'

Art. 20. *A complete Introduction to the Knowledge of the French Language*, containing the Substance of the most approved Grammars; such as Chambaud, Salmon, Porney, Perrin, Restaut, Wanostrocht, Waily, Abbé de Levizac, &c. &c. in which their different Rules and Observations are selected and compressed within a smaller Compass than in any Work of a similar Nature. It is divided into two Parts, grammatical and syntactical; the first contains the Inflection of Words; the second the Rules of the Language, with appropriate Exercises to each Rule, and a recapitulatory Exercise to each Part of Speech. The whole is arranged on the most perspicuous and simple Plan, perfectly adapted to the Capacity of the infant Mind. By George Crabb, Author of a German Grammar, and Teacher of the Classics at Carlisle-House School. Vol. I. 12mo. 3s. 6d. bound. Johnson.

The multiplication of rules, and the attempt to embrace within them all the possible varieties of a language, leaving nothing for the scholar to learn by the mere force of practice and experience, seem to have constituted too prevalent a mistake with the writers of French Grammar. As books of reference, such grammars are useful: but, if meant to be committed to the memory, they appear to us not only useless, but to be stumbling blocks in the way of a learner.

It is difficult to determine how much, or how little, may or should be taught by means of grammatical rules: but we are disposed to concur in Mr. Locke's opinion, that the less the better. Be this, however, as it may, the simple and concise manner in which Mr. Crabb appears to have executed his work entitles it to approbation.

Art. 21. *A Guide from the English Language to the French, or a French Grammar;* wherein those Cases only are treated, on which the two Syntaxes do not agree; and the Rules are particularly adapted to the Genius of the English Language. By F. Henry. 12mo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Dulau and Co. &c.

We approve the principle on which this work proceeds, in treating only those cases in which the French syntax presents a construction different from that of the English: but we think that, in the execution of this design, the author has shewn too much refinement in the division of his rules, which he has multiplied without end. We doubt not, however, that the learner would find it useful for reference, when practising composition; though we cannot recommend the general use of it as a grammar.

Art. 22. *Geiuadur Saesneg a Chymraeg.* An English and Welsh Dictionary, in which the English Words, and, sometimes, the English Idioms and Phraseology, are accompanied by those which synonymise or correspond with them in the Welsh Language. The whole carefully compiled from the best Sources and Materials; with a view of forming an agreeable Companion for the Welsh Youth of both Sexes, and for Welsh Readers in general. By William Richards, M. A. Small 8vo. pp. 407. 5s. V. Griffiths.

This manual, as far as we have examined it, appears to be correct, and in every way well calculated to answer the purposes for which it was designed: though we were disappointed in finding in it so few of the antient British names of towns and cities. We congratulate the public on the acquisition of a compilation so useful, and so accessible: but, as it may tend to accelerate the period when this antient and venerable language shall become extinct, we will take this occasion of expressing a wish, which we strongly feel, that some able and industrious scholar, in the bosom of the Principality, would direct his studies to illustrate the antiquities of his respectable and brave nation, its literature, and its language. It is well known that English books, on all kinds of subjects, are translated into Welsh without difficulty; that the Welsh version of the Bible is equal to any modern one; and that the Cambrian edition of parts of Quevedo's Visions has been so ably executed, that it retains the spirit and the ease which bespeak original composition. We should be glad to have this antient language considered in regard to its structure, its copiousness, and its refinement. While other living tongues have been improving, this has been on the decline: but it was once the language of a very considerable part of Europe; and while there were so many barbarous dialects, disdained by the learned, and hardly intelligible at this day among the descendants of those who spoke them, this prevailed in its greatest purity, as appears from numerous manuscripts which have escaped the ravages of time, and the rage of hostile powers.

Art. 23. *The Teacher's Assistant in English Composition;* or easy Rules for writing Themes and composing Exercises on Subjects proper for the Improvement of Youth of both Sexes at School. By John Walker, Author of the Critical Pronouncing Dictionary, &c. 12mo. pp. 230. 2s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons, &c. 1801.

We agree with Mr. Walker that 'the power of putting our thoughts upon paper, in a clear and agreeable manner, is of sufficient importance in life to form part of a polite education;' and that 'the moment young people can read fluently, and talk upon common subjects, they may be enabled to write upon them; and nothing but the habit is wanting. It is true the path must be smoothed for them; we must not expect them to invent matter: what they write must be infused into them, and what we infuse must be of the easiest kind, and so connected that one part will naturally suggest another: when a subject is thus prepared, it will be easy, even for a child, to set it down from memory upon paper; and when once a habit of doing this is acquired, the greatest difficulty is over. By degrees they will naturally supply with their own words those they do not remember, and soon begin to think upon a subject for themselves.'

The present publication contains a set of themes, easy essays, and a collection of narratives, which, according to the plan of the author, are to be read over to the pupil by the teacher, and to be afterward written by the former from memory as well as he is able. We know of no plan more likely to give the scholar an early fluency of expression, and a ready command of language: but we ſhould have been disposed to have inverted the order in which Mr. Walker has arranged his materials, and to have begun with the narratives and ended with the themes: which, we think, would have been the mode best adapted to all capacities. Mr. Walker, however, is of opinion that, where the pupil has sufficient ability, the order which he has given is the best; because 'it tends to give a precision of thinking, and to keep the mind from wandering too widely from the subject, which many pupils are apt to do, who have a great facility of expression, but a want of closeness of thinking.' The principle, indeed, on which he has proceeded, is in our judgment an excellent one; and it may be modified in its application, according to the discretion of the teacher.

MEDICAL, &c.

Art. 24. *Some Observations on Vaccination, or the Inoculated Cow-pox.* By Richard Dunning, Surgeon, Plymouth-Dock. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

Mr. Dunning is a strenuous advocate for the inoculation of the cow-pox, and apparently on sufficient grounds. He is disposed also to believe that the vaccine inoculation corrects the tendency to scrophula: but this opinion will hardly be established on the narrow basis of an individual's observations. He confides, however, so far in this notion, as to propose repeated inoculation for the cow-pox as a prevention of *phthisis pulmonalis:* but this will be considered, by most of our readers, as an abrupt induction.—Much other desultory matter is introduced, which might have been suppressed with great advantage to the author and to the reader.

Art. 25. *A Second Essay on Burns*, in which an Attempt is made to refute the Opinions of Mr. Earle, and Sir W. Farquhar, lately advanced on the supposed Benefit of the Application of Ice in such Accidents: With Cases and Communications, confirming the Principles and Practice brought forward in a former Essay. Also Proofs, particularly addressed to Surgeons of the Army and Navy, of the Utility of the Stimulating Plan in the Treatment of Injuries caused by the Explosion of Gunpowder. By Edward Kentish, Author of the former Essay. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Mawman. 1800.

This lively and sensible pamphlet is intended to confirm, and give more general circulation to the practice of applying stimulants to burnt and scalded parts; and of supporting the patient, under such accidents, by the internal use of tonics: which system Mr. Kentish had recommended in a former publication.

In reviewing Mr. Earle's (now Sir James Earle) pamphlet*, which is here warmly and ably attacked, we thought it necessary to signify our dissent from his plan of treatment; and we had, indeed, supposed that cooling applications were entirely disused by intelligent practitioners, till we saw that work. In the following instances, Mr. Kentish has strongly marked the contrast between these different methods:

'About two years ago (says Mr. K.) I had an opportunity of pointing out to the pupils of a public institution, the superiority of this practice in a very striking manner. A child was brought for relief, who had been burnt by its cloaths taking fire. The neck, breast, face, hands, and arms were very much injured. It was ordered to have the Ol. Lini c. Aq. Calcis applied to it, and afterwards to be covered with plasters spread with ceratum flavum; and when the paroxysms of pain recurred, to be again bathed with the liniment, as was formerly the practice. It was allowed a small anodyne at night, but otherwise the practice was anti-phlogistic. The pain continued at intervals for several days; the parts did not suppurate; but on the third and fourth day tumified, as did the contiguous cellular membrane. A fever, with thirst, great restlessness, and on the seventh and eighth day a considerable coma, occurred; and on the ninth day the scene closed with the death of the patient. Nearly at the same time a similar accident was received, which was treated according to the principles of my essay, both by external and internal stimulants. The stages of the complaint were so strongly and favourably marked, and the child recovered so quickly and perfectly without any scar, that the gentlemen who saw these two cases, assured me they were well convinced of its superiority, and I have no doubt it will always influence their future practice.'

It is a happy circumstance for mankind, that the faculty are no longer afraid of overstepping the antient limits of their art, in order to cure their patients; and it appears that no prejudices can now defeat a proposal for improving the treatment of any disease, which comes properly warranted before the public:—but it must necessarily happen that, when changes of this nature are projected by practitioners who reside in the country, they cannot be received with equal readiness with those which originate from men who have become eminent in the metropolis. We feel it difficult to account, on any other principle than this, for the slow diffusion of Mr. Kentish's method, which we know to have been productive of the happiest effects.

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* See M. Rev. N. S. vol. xxxii. p. 308.

We extract a short account of the treatment of a patient who had been dreadfully burnt by the accension of inflammable air:

'A draught, with sixty drops of laudanum and two drachms of æther, was given to him about eleven o'clock; and he was profusely bathed with heated spirit of turpentine for some time, over which were applied plasters thickly spread with digestive, rendered to the consistence of a thick liniment with the same spirit. He had a volatile cardiac julep to take a dose of every three hours; the anodyne was repeated at night with forty drops; and on the following morning, an hour before the time of dressing him, which was to be at nine o'clock, in case of thirst he was to have a glass of port wine, or wine and water, half and half.'

The cicatrization of the sores seemed to be afterward promoted by the application of finely powdered chalk to their surface.

We recommend the perusal of this tract, in the strongest manner, to our medical readers. Indeed, the efficacy of spirit of turpentine, applied to recent burns and scalds, should be made known to every family; considering the frequency of such accidents, and the importance of averting their bad consequences.

Art. 26. *The Plague not Contagious; or a Dissertation on the Source of Epidemic and Pestilential Diseases;* in which is attempted to prove, by a numerous Induction of Facts, that they never arise from Contagion, but are always produced by certain States, or certain Vicissitudes of the Atmosphere, &c. The Second Edition, with Additions. By Charles Maclean, M.D. &c. 8vo. 2s. Murray and Highley. 1800.

In the course of our labours, we have been sometimes called to repress confidence, and to detect sophistry: but never have we met with a work which was intitled to severer animadversion than this before us.—That an author should abuse his critics is sufficiently common; and we endure the ill-temper of disappointed writers with that firmness which is requisite to the discharge of our duty:—or that the exploded jests respecting Grub-street should be revived, by a writer who evinces his ignorance alike on this and every other point, would not have added a wrinkle to the brow of criticism:—but that an obscure individual should presume to advance the most hazardous paradoxes, on a subject of the deepest importance to the health of mankind, and that he should expect the wisdom and experience of the highest medical authorities to vanish before his own assertions, is a strain of arrogance which we were not prepared to expect, even from one of the authors of the "Science of Life."—So little did we know of Dr. Maclean, when we reviewed that work*, that we conceived his system and practice to have been published ironically;

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* See M. Rev. N. S. for April, 1799, p. 459.

cally; and however we may aggravate our offences by the avowal, we must acknowlege that we know no more of Dr. Maclean now, than that he appears to be in earnest. We deduct, in course, so much more from our opinion of his wit and his judgment. The former pamphlet might have passed for a tolerable *hoax*, but we do not see what can save the present from total condemnation.

To shew the Doctor's logical and pathological skill, we shall only insert one specimen:

'Some attempts, I understand, have lately been made, to ascertain whether the plague can be communicated by inoculation. How far these attempts may have succeeded, as I have not had an opportunity of perusing the tracts published upon the subject, I do not at present know. But, at all events, it appears to me that the practical consequences, to be deduced from these experiments, cannot be of much importance. For, if it even were true that fever and all the other symptoms of general debility, which characterise plague, could be produced by inoculation, and if this disease, as is at present almost universally believed, can be communicated to the same person, repeatedly during the progress of life; that practice would scarce ever be resorted to by persons in health, who had any chance of escaping the disease. All the inference, therefore, that could be deduced from such a fact, supposing it to be true, is that the plague is, to a certain degree, contagious.—But, as so many apparently irrefutable arguments prove the contrary, it seems much wreath which is due to genius alone; and although Mr. S.'s ns have given us an impression of his worth and good sense, they not excited our admiration of his talents for composition. commendation, however, we can bestow on his lines; they are from the affected turn which we have had so much reason to ure in other late publications. If we can here discover no ages which rise above mediocrity, we at least receive no shocks mock sublimity, or false simplicity.

e present our readers with the following specimen of this author's ers:

' *THE PROSPECT.*

These lines were written at SEBERGHAM, in the month of May, n eminence that commanded a fine view of a rich and cultivated try, of hill and dale, wood and water; and are supposed to come a Friend, who was at that time preparing to leave Cumberland, rder to pursue the mercantile line of life in one of our West-a Islands.

' See this gay landscape, that extends so wide —
The plains of CUMBRIA cloth'd in vernal pride:
Where dreary wilds and barren prospects frown'd,
See CULTIVATION spreads her treasures round;
Athirst for blood, where prowl'd the savage train,
The peaceful lambkins gambol o'er the plain;
Where NATURE's charms and vernal blooms were few,
ART spreads her rival beauties to the view;
Here GRANDEUR revels in the spacious dome;
And there the Peasant's carol cheers his home;
Here, crown'd with garlands, strays the Village Maid,
And there the wearied Woodman wreathes his shade.

' Blest natives they! who, at the peep of dawn,
Scale the proud hill, or musing, range the lawn;
Blest natives they! who FLORA's scenes behold—
The lily blossom and the rose unfold:
But scenes like these no more shall shed delight,
No more, with native beauties, lure my sight!
In distant lands, beyond the Western Main,
I haste, to mingle with TRADE's busy train;
Where vertic suns, that torrid fervour pour,
Check the grove's music and the vernal flow'r.
Yet long shall MEM'RY's eye, with rapture, roam
'Mid the bright joys that bless'd my native home;
Long shall yon bow'r, that courts the zephyr's gale—
Yon stream, that winds down Seb'ram's verdant vale—
Long shall yon bank—yon grove of ancient trees—
Return to view, and still return to please.

' Adieu BRITANNIA! o'er thy favour'd isle,
May Trade and Commerce, nurs'd by FREEDOM, smile!
Adieu ye FAIR! Creation's brightest part,
Who long in chains have held my captive heart;

And thou, AMANDA, to my bosom dear,
Take, at this parting hour, a Lover's tear!
'Tis the best tribute I can pay to thee—
What more can come from SORROW, and from me?'

Of the lighter pieces, we shall select only the following epigram, in which the author has been more successful than usual:

' EPIGRAM III.

' DICK on his wife could not bestow
One tear of Sorrow when she died;
Her *life* had made so many flow,
That all the briny fount was dried.'

We are glad, for the author's sake, to observe that this miscellany has been encouraged by numerous subscribers.

Art. 28. *The Summer's Eve;* a Poem. By John Bidlake, A. B. Chaplain to his R. H. the Duke of Clarence, &c. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Murray and Co. 1800.

It is perhaps not to be expected that a poem should display much originality, in the composition of which the imagination of the author must necessarily occupy a field whence so many former poets have culled the flowers. In the present work, we meet in every page with descriptions, images, and sentiments, that recall to our recollection the works of Thomson, Gray, and Goldsmith: but, independently of this want of originality, the poem possesses considerable merit. The verse in general is harmonious, and the rhymes are correct. The imagery is pleasing and classical, and it is agreeably deversified by moral and religious reflection.—We give the following quotation as an example of the author's style:

' In poets' fancy-dreams the rural bow'r
Is void of care, and blest each rural hour;
They boast their plenty ever dwells, and there
Each Strephon constant, and each Phillis fair;
And if perchance with love, their happy lot
Should fix them in some small sequester'd cot,
Be sure they feed on joys that ne'er decline,
They drink love's nectar, and on raptures dine.
But ah! where'er poor man shall hide his head,
Fast on his steps will certain Misery tread;
With giant pace his weary paths invade,
O'er opening bliss diffusing nights of shade.
' See yonder hovel! mark the tottering roof!
Against no angry pelting tempest proof:
See through the broken pane, with visit rude,
Each wind familiarly dares intrude!
While hourly trembling in the crumbling wall,
Suspensive danger threats its instant fall.
Within, the squalid family complain
Of lingering want and ever-during pain:
There to their rugged beds the hungry creep,
And try to lose their griefs in friendly sleep:

There, sad companions! dwell lean wasting Care,
Chill Penury, and hopeless, fix'd Despair.
Yet there some solitary joys are found,
With friendly balm to heal the gnawing wound.
There Love, not frighted from the sooty cell,
With wretchedness is still content to dwell;
Life's Charity, that smooths the wrinkled brow,
And gilds the gloom of all our pains below.
E'en Friendship there will not disdain to rest,
Nor Sleep, who loves to doze on Labour's breast.
See o'er her sleeping babe the mother bends,
The cradle rocks, and all its slumbers tends.
Ah! see how anxious love and tender fear
Fast from her lids distil the trembling tear;
Affection's tears, more worth than gems can own
That beauty deck, or glitter in a crown.
Thou cradled babe! how does my bosom beat,
To think what ills thy future paths await:
Pride on thy humble birth shall sternly frown,
And dark Oppression claim thee for his own,
And thou adversity e'er doom'd to taste,
A spring-bud struggling in the wildest waste.'

29. *Virginia*, or the Fall of the Decemvirs; a Tragedy. By hn Bidlake, B. A. Chaplain to his Royal Highness the Duke Clarence, &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray and Highley. 1800.

this tragedy cannot be said to possess any quality which elevates ove the rank of mediocrity, it labours under few defects which ubject it to the lash of criticism. The events of the story are ew and too simple to be capable of being wrought up into an *sting* Drama; and the action of the plot scarcely commences the beginning of the fourth act. The 1st, 2d, and 3d acts st principally of uninteresting dialogue, between parties who brought forwards solely for the purpose of declaiming, in lan-e sufficiently elegant and poetical, but whose appearance and ersation contribute little to the progress of the plot.

30. *The Conspiracy of Gowrie*, a Tragedy. 8vo. 2s. Bell. 1800.

he author of this play informs us that he has published it to tain 'whether his mind is of that kind, which is likely to l in literary pursuits.' His appeal to public opinion is candid: perhaps it would have been more judicious, if he had introduced elf by attempting something less than the high and difficult ies of composition which he has here undertaken.

his piece might have been more properly characterized as a atic poem, than as a tragedy; and indeed, the bard himself cognized its unfitness for representation, in his preface. The tions from historical facts, in which he has indulged, are not ensated by any additional interest in the plot; and the cha-r of Maclenna, which seems to be copied from the *invisibles* of German monster-mongers, produces nothing but perplexity in

the reader. We shall extract part of her history, (the whole w
be too long,) as a favourable specimen of the author's style:

> 'Fair smil'd my fortunes once. My father died,
> And early left me to a husband's care;
> A husband, dear to me as light, as life,
> Whom science honour'd and whom wisdom lov'd.
> Serene and unmolested in the vale
> Mov'd on the noiseless tenour of his days,
> Virtue his practice, knowledge his delight.
> He number'd o'er the nightly host of stars,
> Pursu'd the wand'rings of the cloudless moon,
> And read the face of Heav'n: the pregnant earth
> For him pour'd forth her treasures of the mine.
> For him the green sea gave her shelly store;
> Each tree that crown'd the mountain, and each flow'r
> That strew'd the dale, with ev'ry potent herb,
> He knew and nam'd the name. His fame flew high,
> Till Envy shed her sickly dews around,
> Damp'd his bold wing, and press'd him low, low, low.
> Calumny then, though us'd to lurk in shades,
> Rear'd in the sun's broad blaze her terrible crest,
> And with accusing tongue heap'd charge on charge
> To swell the forg'd account, that, leagu'd with fiends
> Invisible, of fire, earth, air and sea.

. *The Point of Honor:* a Play, in Three Acts. Taken the French, and performed with universal Applause at the tre-Royal, Hay-Market. By Charles Kemble. 8vo. 2 s. man and Rees.

short piece excites considerable interest even in the closet, it is calculated chiefly for stage-effect. Our suspence for the Durimel, who is condemned to death as a deserter, is artfully ed to the last; and the characters, also, are well contrasted. dialogue we have little to observe: it merits neither much or severe censure. If an audience at a theatre must be ani- y huzzas, and thrilled with horror by the roll of the drum, e exhibits some dexterity in the management of those modern ments on tragedy.

. *Life.* A Comedy, in Five Acts. As performed at the tre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By Frederick Reynolds. 8vo. Longman and Rees. 1801.

were inclined to be severe on the excentric author of this fle, we might complain that he leads the Reviewers a *sad life*; old heads have ached, as the fantastic figures of this comedy before us. We might say, with Æsop's frogs, that this may to Mr. R. but it is death to us. There is not so much e between Champagne and Perry, as between sterling comic l the bouncing, frothy sallies of this writer; and the words let respecting human life may be applied without alteration lay:

Fie on't! fie on't! 'tis an unweeded garden,
That grows to seed—things rank and gross in nature
Possess it merely."——

tage has too long been occupied by these farces in five acts; s time that good taste should assert her right to be decently pectably amused. A single caricature may entertain for a , but an unconnected groupe of grotesque figures cannot he place of a good painting. In a word, unless Mr. Rey- ends his *life* in his next dramatic effort, we fear that, how- may escape from the audience, sentence of condemnation must ounced in our court.

41. we observe a new word, which must undergo the mark bation—*impostress*—There is no good authority for this femi- nination.

'*Respicere exemplar Vitæ morumque jubebo*
Doctum Imitatorem, et veras hinc ducere voces."

. *Wilmore Castle*, a Comic Opera, in Two Acts, as per- d with considerable Applause at the Theatre-Royal Drury- . The Music entirely New, by Mr. Hook. Written by R. ton, M. B. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Westly.

earn from the preface that this piece did not entirely succeed tage; which the author, as usual, imputes to party—"*Ah! Auteur tombé*!*" No candid reader, however, will dissent from the judgment of the audience; on the contrary, it were to be wished that similar severity had been exercised on other modern dramas which are endured on our theatres, tho' not superior to the production before us.

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* *Le Barbier de Seville.*

We give the following specimen of the virtue for which the author supposes he was driven out of the Thespian Court; a satire on Men-milliners:

'*Enter* Miss HARLEY, *and* SMART, *dressed as a Postillion, his boots dirty.*

'*Miss H. (Laughing as she enters)* Excuse me, *Smart*, but I really cannot help laughing at thy present figure.

'*Smart. (Laughing heartily, and surveying himself)* Nor can I, Madam, refrain from laughing at myself,—to behold the spruce, dapper Mr. Smart, ladies' *man-milliner*, in London, metamorphosed into a dirty postillion!—Gad, it was lucky that I learned to *drive*, before I had the honor of a place behind the counter of a *cap* and *bonnet* merchant.

'*Charles.* 'Tis from an experience of thy better talents, that we have taken thee on this expedition; and be assured, my good fellow, if we succeed in our enterprize of getting into WILMORE CASTLE, that we will reward thee nobly.

'*Smart.* Succeed!—May I never twirl another ribbon but we will succeed!—But were the charming *shopping ladies* to see me in this trim and pickle, never more would they suffer me to hand them a cap, or adjust a bonnet.

'*Miss H.* I dare say, Smart, you are very fond of attending your fair customers.

'*Smart.* Charming to be sure, Ma'am, to wait upon the ladies! --And then with our heads neatly colliflowered --a smirking countenance, and "*nimeny pimeny*" lisp, thus to address the divine creatures:—"Pray, ladies, do me the honor to notice the graceful air of this *Cap*--beauty of form—wave of feather, and enchanting elegance of the whole!—The price exceedingly low, considering the richness of the materials, and immense beauty of the fashion - only three guineas! -Do, young lady, just try it on before the glass;—how striking!—how attracting!—'pon honor, Ma'am, it becomes you most divinely!"

'*Miss H.* Ha! ha! ha!—I vow one of my own sex could not have given a better description!

'*Charles.* And yet, I am inclined to think, Smart, that you are not much pleased with this effeminate employ.

'*Smart.* True, Captain *Harley*; for though, by a topsy-turvy sort of custom, *Men* are become great proficients in the *art millinery*, damme, but I had rather drive your Honor through the dirtiest roads in all England, than longer continue in an employ, that usurps the station of industrious females!

'*Miss H.* Mind, Smart, our feigned name is *Bloomer*.

'*Smart.* I'll be as wary as a hawk, provided there is no danger of being shot on the expedition.

'*Charles.* Surely, my good friend, you would face some danger for us.

'*Smart.* Sir, I think it honest thus early to announce, that with respect to *fire-arms* and *cold-steel*, my nerves are not the stoutest—every man has his *antipathies*.

'*Miss H.* Pri'thee tell us—what occasioned thine?

'*Smart.* Madam, you must know that I went myself lately on a love expedition; when on attempting to carry off my charmer, I was not only saluted with a blunderbuss, but had very near a small sword thro' my body!—Do you wonder now, Ma'am, at my antipathy to fire arms and cold steel!

'*Charles.* Ha! ha! ha!—Well, well, I'll insure thee from all harm.

'*Smart.* (*Spouting*) Then, Richard Smart, "thou art thyself again!"

'*Miss H.* Yonder, brother, is certainly WILMORE CASTLE, from the description we received.—Step on, Smart, and reconnoitre the Castle a little more closely for us.

'*Smart.* (*Alarmed*) Reconnoitre the Castle!—I begin to smell gunpowder! (*aside*) Zounds, I wish this love expedition was over, and that I was safe back again in town. I greatly fear I shall meet some of my *antipathies*!' [*Exit.*

Though we do not think that the author should complain of the sentence pronounced by the audience, yet, if he should accuse the public of shewing too great indulgence to some of his brother-bards, whose merits are not superior to his own, his argument might be very well sustained.

Art. 34. *The Step Mother*, a Tragedy. By the Earl of Carlisle, K. G. &c 8vo. 2s. Evans. 1800

It is the purpose of this noble author, to turn the views of the public to our own resources for dramatic composition, and to emancipate the stage from the predominance of German models. In this salutary and patriotic scheme, he has the concurrence of our wishes for his complete success: but the warmth of public caprice seems now to have exhausted itself; the audience begins to look with disgust on the scenes of the Teutonic Melpomene; and it will soon discover, like Shakspeare's Fairy-Queen, that *it had been enamoured of an Ass's head.*

In the tragedy before us, Lord Carlisle has introduced our old acquaintances, the three Fatal Sisters, instead of the modern train of apparitions; and he has mingled scenes of a lighter and more comic cast, with those of terror and desolation. The machinery might have been properly omitted, because it adds nothing to the interest of the piece; and, as the scene is laid in Poland, we have some doubt whether the supernatural personages be appropriately assigned. The Plot, in which an ambitious and unprincipled woman, by a series of machinations, causes her husband and son to fall by each other's hands, is sufficiently dreadful, without the intervention of visionary agents; and the habitual vices of the culpable characters render such interference unnecessary.—The characters are, in general, well supported, and the language is correct: but the principal deficiency, of which we must complain, is the want of tragic fire: instead of the thunder and lightning of poetry, we meet with the glare of an Argand's lamp. Thomson speaks of "*the mild majesty of private life*;" and such we conceive to be Lord Carlisle's station among writers of tragedy.

We insert a specimen of the dialogue:

SCENE II.

'*Enter Casimir, Frederic, Adolphus, Peres, Countess Casimir, Louisa, Isabella, attendants.*

'*Casimir.* You've made good haste. I was afraid the letter,
That must have reach'd you, as you pass'd thro' Warsaw,
Might, for some days, have given you employment
With our first Minister.
'*Frederic.* He was then absent,
And his arrival for this month postpon'd.
I deem'd it not your pleasure, I had waited.
'*Casimir. (aside)* O that you had! thus I had gain'd some days
Of value beyond measure.
'*Louisa.* But this wound!
You hardly mention'd it! then the fatigue,
The weather, and the roads; alas! you should
Have travell'd slower.
'*Peres.* Soft.—As for the wound,
I best can speak to that: I can describe
Most accurately the nature of the hurt.
But first, young lady, you must learn the course
That a ball took in Marshal Mouskin's hip;
Almost a homogeneous case, except
With the nice difference of the injury
To the os pubis and the great trochanter—
'*Frederick.* O this abuses all indulgence! Peace,
As you respect clean straw and hellebore.
The man is surely craz'd! Is this a season—
'*Casimir.* If you would hear of wounds, of perilous chances,
Of valour and of strength, of men whose sinews
Were twisted, like a cable, by the hand
Of Nature, and train'd by her to bend not
Under such iron coats as now would crush
To atoms all the modern pigmy race,
You must look back to seasons, when our Poles
Had men to struggle with!
Sons of our northern Serpent, Swedes and Russians,
Another race! How different from your Turk,
Reeling and nerveless from his haram-conflicts,
Ill-stomaching the change of the down sopha
And scented bath, for the straw-litter'd tent!
And still you call yours—War!
'*Adolphus.* You much mistake,
My Lord granting, that, since your famous times,
The human race has undergone a sweating,
As has our coin, and now has little value;
Yet, had you witness'd—

'*Frederick.* O no more of this!
Indulge his humour.
'*Adolphus.* 'Tis a cursed one:—
But, for thy sake—
'*Countess.* We're wont to hear, all things,
In his conceit, are verging to decay.
The very ice is not with equal thickness
Ribb'd, as in his good days: the sun itself
Now yields, in potency of heat and splendour,
To the poor peasant's stove. Excuse this fancy;
I know he means you no ungracious welcome.
'*Adolphus. (aside)* As hearty as your own, or I'm mistaken.
Casimir. Come, let us leave this place. Our northern air
Must needs affront the untun'd, out-stretch'd nerves,
By Asia's steaming winds. Prithee, let's in.
I know your modern traveller wants recruits
That nature formerly could well dispense with.
[*Exeunt, excepting Adolphus and Isabella.*'

We shall not attempt to determine, precisely, how near this scene approaches to our great dramatic poets: but it is certainly better than some of the translations from the German with which we have lately been pestered.

Art. 35. *The Fate of Bertha*; a Poem. By William Lucas. 4to. 2s. 6d. Westley. 1800.

This little poem, consisting of twenty-nine pages, creates not fewer than two suicides, a murder, and a rape. If to these we add the tortured rhymes, the mutilated verses, and the scattered limbs of poets purloined and mangled by the author, which occur in every page, it will surely be thought that we pass a very lenient sentence on it, by condemning it to perpetual imprisonment.

LAW.

Art. 36. *Report of the Cause between Charles Sturt, Esq. Plaintiff, and the most Noble the Marquis of Blandford, Defendant,* for Criminal Conversation with the Right Honourable Lady Mary Ann Sturt, tried in the Court of King's Bench, Westminster, 27th May 1801, before Lord Kenyon and a Special Jury. With an Appendix containing the Letters of the Parties which did not appear on the Trial; a Preface; and Notes 2d. Edit. 8vo. 5. Ridgway.

This publication comes from the Plaintiff in the cause to which it relates; and the additions made to it are designed to repel the aspersions cast on his character by the Attorney General, who was counsel for the Defendant. It is not our province to discuss an affair of this delicate nature, nor to give any opinion of it: but we may observe that it seems no more than just that those who have heard of the Attorney General's attack on Mr. Sturt should consider this defence, and that the pamphlet is likely to gratify curiosity *of a certain kind:* but we cannot say that it affords a pleasing view of either fashionable morals or fashionable attainments.

Art. 37. *Remarks on the Poor Laws, and the Maintenance of the Poor.* By William Bleamire, Esq. Barrister at Law, and one of the Police Magistrates. 8vo. pp. 36. 1s. 6d. Butterworth. 1800.

The reader is here presented with a short but neat account of the system of the poor-laws, and the different acts of parliament by which that system has been established.—The present writer agrees with Mr. Ruggles, (whose works on this subject we have formerly noticed with commendation,) that it would be advantageous to abolish settlements, which operate as an encroachment on natural liberty, and are attended with more expence than benefit to the community He also recommends that the office of overseer should be annihilated; and that a person of experience, integrity, and ability, should be annually appointed in his stead to take care of and manage the poor, to whom the title of inspector of the poor might be given. Mr. Saunders (an account of whose publication may be found in our 29th vol. N. S. p. 458.) is of opinion that many of the evils belonging to the present system are referable to the nature of the overseer's office; and he advises a separation of the duties of collector and overseer, depositing the funds in the hands of a treasurer. The two plans do not materially vary; and they are both the result of much attention to an important subject, from persons whose situation furnished them with the best opportunities of arriving at just conclusions.

Art 38. *A Translation of the Chapters* CCLXXIII. *and* CCLXXXVII. *of the Consolato del Mari relating to Prize Law.* 8vo. pp. 27. 1s. Butterworth. 1800.

This translation is executed by Dr. Robinson, (whose Admiralty Reports we have mentioned with approbation,) from the old Italian Version, chiefly used by *Casa-Regis*, and reprinted with his explications at Venice in the year 1737. The *Consolato* is a body of practical regulations, adapted to the variety of interests and relations resulting from maritime pursuits. Both of the merit and of the antiquity of the collection, different writers have entertained different sentiments; *Bynkershoek* and *Hubner* representing it as a *Farrago, un amas, ou un récueil assez mal-choisi;* while *Casa-Regis*, *Valin*, and *Emerigon*, esteem it as a *valuable* but *hidden* treasure; which the latter writer once intended to have rendered more accessible to public use, by a new translation, accompanied with notes.—This work is asserted in the Italian editions to have been received at *Rome* in the year 1075, and at various other places in the 11th, 12th, and 13th centuries: according to Giannoni, however, it is supposed not to have appeared till the time of Louis IX. of France: but it is generally allowed to have been composed from the Amalphitan Table, which existed as a body of maritime laws of great and extensive authority in the Mediterranean, from the close of the eleventh century. The propriety of its republication at this period cannot be questioned, when the subject of prize law is undergoing such frequent and able discussions in the Court of Admiralty here, and in the foreign Universities.

Art. 39. *Collectanea Maritima*, being a Collection of Public Instruments, &c. &c. tending to illustrate the History and Practice of Prize Law. By Charles Robinson, L.L. D. Advocate in Doctors' Commons. 8vo. pp. 90. 2s. 6d. Butterworth. 1801.

The right of visitation and search of neutral vessels, in time of war, is a subject of general importance, and has of late received great consideration.—Some persons do not hesitate to represent this species of law as more arbitrary in its foundation, and more questionable in its obligations, than other laws; as incompatible with the true principles of justice; and as subversive of the rightful exercise of neutral commerce. Others maintain, and among the number is the present writer, that the temperate use of the right of search and personal inspection is at all times the best, if not the only, security for belligerent powers against the consequences of imposition and fraud.

'It is the particular object, (Dr. Robinson observes,) of the following pages to shew, that in addition to the expediency and political fitness of this pretension, we have on our side the sanction of immemorial *usage and custom of the sea*, proved as regularly and as fully as any other legal custom whatever. It was therefore for the purpose of interposing something like an appeal to the experience of former times, that a translation of the prize chapters of the Consolato del Mari was lately offered to the public; in prosecution of the same design, and as a sequel to that little work, the following collection of public acts is now brought forward, in such a manner as seemed best adapted to convey the most information by the shortest means. The period of the 16th and 17th centuries was chosen for the commencement of this collection, on account of its important relation to every branch of civil polity prevalent amongst us at this day; and more particularly because the subjects of prize law appear to have been much agitated during that period. The printed collection of French ordinances, with the exception of one or two edicts, commences from that time, and during the reigns of Henry VIII., Queen Elizabeth, James I. and Charles I. these subjects were frequently brought into discussion between them and their powerful opponents.'

In conformity with this design, Dr. R. has brought forwards many precedents, to shew that the main principles of prize law are built, as is often observed in the Consolato del Mari, *on the ancient customs and usage of the sea.* On this species of proof, we are presented with the following judicious remark by the present author:

'If, on this view of the evidence of past times, the *fact* of custom shall be *successfully* established, the conclusion of law will not be very distant. Till it is shewn on the other side, in what respect this custom so proved differs from other legal customs; or for what reasons it is not as natural and as just a source of legal obligation as other customs; it will be our duty to adhere to the authority which has been so long ascribed to it, in every language of Europe and at all times; and to forego none of the benefits of those rights, which have been constantly claimed and practised under it;—affording hereby some proof of *necessary utility* from general prevalence, and some inference of a legal quality from *this utility. Lex est ratio summa, quæ jubet quæ sunt utilia et necessaria.*'

These public instruments are chiefly taken from Rymer's *Fœdera*; and the last in the volume, which is a French Ordinance of Charles VI. dated 7th December 1400, furnishes a convincing proof that the main principles of prize law were considered, four hundred years ago, nearly in the same light as at this day; and that the regulations applied to them were framed *then* with particular attention, and with specific reference to the *practice* and *usage* which had, as it was then expressed, *antiently* prevailed on these matters.

This collection, which we are glad to hear is to be continued, is calculated to assist the researches of the learned, and to amuse the curious in their speculations; it also reflects much light on a discussion in which the dearest interests of this country are materially concerned.

Additional remarks on this subject will be found in a preceding part of this number of our Review: see pages 307. to 313.

Art. 40. *The Laws relating to the Poor.* By Francis Const, Esq. of the Middle Temple, Barrister at Law. The Fourth Edition; in which the Statutes and Cases to Hilary Term 1800, including the Collections originally made upon this Subject by Edmund Bott, Esq. are arranged under their respective Heads; and the whole System of the Poor Laws, together with many Cases never before published, placed in a clear and perspicuous point of view.

The same statute 35 *Geo.* 3. c. 101. has provided that no person shall gain a settlement by being rated or paying taxes in respect of tenements under the yearly value of ten pounds; and, as a settlement is gained by renting a tenement of ten pounds a year, any proof of paying taxes for the same becomes unnecessary; for which reason, the chapter relative to paying public taxes is also omitted.

The statutes which have been passed, and the cases which have been decided, since the publication of the last edition, are all introduced and properly arranged in the present; while those cases, which have been expressiv determined *not to be law*, are removed from the text. A few *MSS.* cases about the beginning of the Reign of George II. will also be found in this work.

Such is the nature of this publication; which, from the vast quantity and the judicious arrangement of its matter, must be found extremely useful, if not indeed absolutely necessary, by a large proportion of the profession.—Though we think that the editor has in most instances been accurate in placing his cases under their different heads, we are inclined to believe that the case of *The King* against *The Inhabitants of Lowess.* E. 16 Geo. 3 Burr S. C. 825, which is inserted under the chapter treating of a settlement by renting a tenement, should have been introduced in the chapter relative to a settlement by hiring and service; since it is the case of a servant, and not of a person occupying a tenement. This, however, is a very trifling mistake in a work of so much general merit, and on which so much labour and judgement have been exercised.

Art. 41. *A System of English Conveyancing, adapted to Scotland.* A New Edition, considerably enlarged and improved. By James M'Nayr, LL. D. Writer in Glasgow. 4to. pp. 300. Glasgow. 1800.

The frequent execution in Scotland of deeds in the English form, in consequence of her commercial intercourse with this country and the colonies, (which are in a great measure governed by our laws,) and the ignorance of and inattention to the essential requisites of deeds, too observable in the Scotch conveyancers, render red a publication of this description particularly desireable. The author, with the view of remedying this inconvenience, has in the volume before us presented to his countrymen a collection of such precedents as are in most general use, and has annexed to them such an analysis of their nature and form, as must conduce to render them more easily and better understood.—We are of opinion that the work will be found serviceable to those for whose purpose it was compiled, and therefore we recommend it to their attention.

NOVELS.

Art. 42. *The Mistake*, or something beyond a Joke. By P. Littlejohn. 12mo. 3 Vols. 12s. Boards. Hurst, &c. 1800.

The author of this tale modestly assures us that it contains nothing which may be literally termed new, and that the characters boast not of originality. We fear, however, that the diffidence of Mr. Littlejohn has rendered him blind to his own merits: because, in our opinion, there is much of what is new in the work, and much which he may safely call his own. For instance, what can be more novel and original than the following passages, in which he talks (page 4th, 1st vol.) 'of hours passed in a giddy round of fashionable intemperance, till the *tender incitations* of a husband *became lost in the conflict*'; (p. 23.)—'prognosticating that genuine affection was concerned;'—(P. 105.) 'Dimming the native lustre of *his eye with a cast of piteous eccentricity!*''—(p. 116.) of 'displaying a flag *in a kind of terrorum*'; (p. 121.) of 'the mortification of the disappointment adding force to the *erasible* particles';—and (p. 161.) 'o' *other etceteras.*'

Novelty and originality, also, are not here confined to words and phrases, but are conspicuous in the situations of the *dramatis personæ*, and in the poetical excursions of the writer's fancy. Can we look for a more novel situation than that of a gentleman fainting away, and supported by a lady into whose arms he fell? (vide p 170. vol. 3d) 'he uttered a tremulous sigh, and but for the timely exertion of Mrs. Fairfax would have sunk on the floor, she supported him in her arms, and her maid, whom her cries brought to her assistance, administered a volatile essence, which soon again brought back pulsation.'—We have often heard of "disarming by a look," and have generally regarded it as a mere metaphorical expression: but we see it actually exemplified in this work: (Page 234, vol. 3.) 'Fairfax had been but stunned by the blow, and soon recovered sufficiently to see his situation—he started *to* his feet, and in order to impede their flight, produced a pistol;—he presented it, but in doing it his eye met the severe frown of Edmund. A pang of conscious guilt *enerved* his arm, and the instrument fell from his hand.'—We shall quote one more passage, as a specimen of this gentleman's poetical capacity: (p. 49. vol. i.) '*but truth, like the elementary bolt, commissioned by its electrical force to the quick destruction of some lofty spreading tree, strikes deep to the very centre of my hopes,—dries up the foliage of my fancy,—and leaves me a parched and withered ruins!!*'

In chusing the profession of an author, Mr. Littlejohn has certainly made a '*Mistake*,' and we apprehend that he may find the consequences of it to be '*beyond a joke.*'

Art. 43. *Elliott:* or, Vicissitudes of early Life. By Mrs. Burke. 12mo. 2 Vols. 8s. sewed. Cawthorn. 1800.

To those who can receive pleasure from the mere narration of successive events, without requiring any accordancy with nature and probability; and who can read the tale of thwarted love and suffering virtue, without regarding poverty of diction or faults of style; the history of *Elliott* may prove an interesting production.

Art. 44. *The Letters of a Solitary Wanderer;* containing Narratives of various Description. By Charlotte Smith. 12mo. 3 Vols. 13s. 6d. sewed. Low. 1800.

Each of these volumes contains a narrative supposed to be collected by the Solitary Wanderer in the counties which he visits. The tales are entertaining and interesting; and the composition does no discredit to the established reputation of Mrs. C. Smith.

Art. 45. *Midsummer Eve; or the Country Wake: a Tale of the Sixteenth Century.* 12mo. 2 Vols. 6s. sewed. Mawman. 1800.

We are told that this tale has been very popular for more than two hundred years in the northern districts of England; and that it has been delivered to posterity by oral tradition, and believed with such implicit faith by numbers, that they never questioned one single article in the story. We can see no reason why it should not still have been left to oral tradition; except that the editor, being one of those who never doubted the truth of the tale, was fearful lest the progress of reason and knowlege should weaken the power of oral tradition, and therefore wished to preserve it from future oblivion by giving it existence in a written record. He has certainly *gone great lengths*, in order to persuade his readers into a belief of the supernatural appearances related in the story, by putting it on the same footing with a belief in the sacred truth of revealed religion; and by applying the same arguments against infidelity with respect to the former, which are used against scepticism concerning the latter. Whether he has thus benefited the cause of religion, we leave wiser heads than our own to determine: but we will suppose that the editor imagined he should contribute to its promotion, because, if he could add to the numbers of those who never disputed the truth of the story, he would thus be disposing so many to receive without hesitation the less marvellous narrations of sacred writ.

Art. 46. *The Castle of Eridan; or* the entertaining and surprising History of the valiant Don Alvares, and the beautiful Eugenia, Duchess of Savoy. By G. A. Graglia. 12mo. 4s. 6d. sewed. Hurst, &c. 1800.

Improbable in its events, unnatural in its characters, mean in its sentiments, and trifling in its descriptions, this tragical tale is *sad* in nothing but its composition, and excites no sorrow but for its author.

POLITICAL.

Art. 47. *Remarks on a late Publication styled "The History of the Politics of Great Britain and France,"* &c. &c. By William Belsham. 8vo. 3s. 6d. stitched. Robinsons. 1800.

Art. 48. *The History of the Politics of Great Britain and France vindicated from a late Attack by Mr. William Belsham.* By Herbert Marsh, B.D. F.R.S. 8vo. 3s. stitched. Stockdale. 1801.

Art. 49. *Reply to the Rev. Herbert Marsh's Vindication of a late Work,* &c. By William Belsham. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Robinsons. 1801.

"When Greek meets Greek, then comes the tug of war."—These two adverse political champions are confessedly men of high abilities, which have been sufficiently manifested by their former publications, on subjects both historical and political. The remarker considers the *History*, &c. by Mr. Marsh * as partial to the measures of the British Government with respect to the present 'Bloody and Destructive War;' and to evince this partiality, he enters into a strict examination of the conduct of our Ministry, with regard to those topics which are subjects of Mr. M.'s panegyrical display, from the treaty of Pilnitz in 1791, to Lord Grenville's abrupt refusal of M. Chauvelin's overtures for an alliance between Great Britain and France, in the year 1793. The whole of this severe investigation is designed to prove, in opposition to the ingenious *Historian of the Politics*, &c. that with regard to the war *we* were the *aggressors.*—Mr. B. concludes with the following pointed prophecy regarding our late premier, whose retirement from the helm of administration the prophet could not foresee at the time when he wrote:

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* For our account of this work, see M. Rev. N. S. vol. xxxi. Feb. and March, 1800.

'The name of Mr. Pitt will be immortalized in history, as the man who has added more to the burden, and subtracted more from the liberties of the subject, than all the statesmen who have preceded him in office since the Revolution. No Minister ever challenged the confidence of the country with such haughtiness; and no Minister ever so completely forfeited all rational pretension to that confidence so prematurely and proudly claimed.'

For the defence of his *History*, as well as of the conduct of our Government, Mr. Marsh has, published this *Vindication*, &c.; and whether or not he has been successful in his general design of refuting Mr. B.'s objections, and overturning his representations, he certainly has well supported his own reputation as an able writer and advocate.—We refrain from entering, on this occasion, into particular points of controversy; chusing rather to refer to these interesting tracts at large; which are well worth the perusal of readers of either party, who wish for farther satisfaction concerning them.

In Mr. B.'s *Reply* to Mr. M. the animated author sets out with the following preliminary observations:—'It unfortunately happens, that controversy, or, in other words, fair and impartial discussion, which is a very good thing, is extremely apt to degenerate into contention, or personal altercation, which is a very bad one. Taking it for granted, in the Remarks published by me not many months since, on the History of Mr. Herbert Marsh. which appeared in my view, as in that of many others, a very fallacious book, that the author imposed upon himself as well as upon his admirers, I made a point of treating him with great personal respect; especially as in the proper line of his profession, I had seen what, in my apprehension, discovered much good sense and liberality. But Mr. Marsh probably deems politics, not theology, his *forte;* and will not thank me for a compliment which is accompanied with any such abatement.

'Indeed, considering the excessive arrogance of the tone which he assumed, and even the gross obloquy which he presumed to cast upon those who were not convinced by his arguments, weak and contemptible as they are, representing us as actuated by obstinacy, perverseness, and "party malevolence;" which I had, in my Remarks, expressly declared that I would not suppose of him; I thought I had some reason to plume myself upon my meekness and forbearance: nor shall I, notwithstanding the rudeness and asperity of his Reply, now descend to use any language inconsistent with *general respect;*

although he must pardon me if I cannot refrain from some indications of the very low estimation in which I hold him as a politician. The Public are certainly no farther interested in this controversy, than as it relates to the question of aggression respecting the war: but I shall claim their indulgence in saying a few words, *en passant*, in vindication of my own character, unnecessarily and wantonly traduced.'

For Mr. Belsham's well-maintained arguments in support of his *Remarks*, &c. we shall, for the reasons already intimated regarding the two preceding publications, refer to his *Reply* at large.

Art. 50. *The Substance of Earl Temple's Speech*, delivered in the House of Commons, May 4, 1801, on the Subject of Mr. John Horne Tooke's Eligibility to a Seat in Parliament. 8vo. 2s. Wright.

" *Once a Captain, always a Captain,*"

is a maxim which is made to apply very forcibly to the clerical corps. Other professions may be changed at will: but a priest, it is decreed, must be a *priest for ever after the order of Melchisedeck*; though it is difficult, if not impossible, clearly to define (as Dr. Campbell has shewn in the extracts made from his work, see our present Number, p. 271.) wherein the indelibility of the clerical character consists. Lord Temple has argued the question respecting Mr. Horne Tooke's eligibility to a seat in the House of Commons, on account of having been ordained to priest's orders, with considerable ability on his side of the question,—attempting to shew that precedent was in his favour; and though he did not carry his point in that night's debate, he may be said to have ultimately succeeded; since it has been settled by a new act of parliament, that, henceforwards, ordination to the priestly office disqualifies a man from representing a county or borough in the House of Commons.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 51. *Preached at Hanover-square, Newcastle*, for the Support of the New College, Manchester. By William Turner. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1800.

This is an ingenious and useful discourse. The short view which it affords of the arduous progress of Christian liberty, since the Reformation, may be interesting and acceptable to many readers:—but the author's principal intention is to invite assistance and encouragement for the *College* mentioned above, intended for the education of ministers among that class of dissenters who, descended from *Presbyterian* ancestors, are now improperly called by that name;—who, receiving the Scriptures, yet, 'have no creed as a term of communion;'—who 'consider the persons assembled' in their places of worship, 'not as Episcopalians, Presbyterians, or Independents, not as Calvinists or Arminians, Trinitarians or Unitarians, Baptists or Pædobaptists, *as such*; but as so many *individual Christians*; each one professing Christianity for himself, according to his own views of it, and acknowleging the Minister's right to do the same; and as necessarily united in nothing but a desire to worship the supreme Lord of all as the disciples of one common

Master, and also in a desire to keep the unity of the spirit in the bond of peace, rather than the unity of the faith in the bonds of ignorance and presumption.' This is a brief view of the design of this discourse, in the writer's own words. He manifests much liberality and candour, and his style is that of a man of learning, though it is at times somewhat involved.

Art. 52. *Preached in the Parish Church of Langton juxta Partney*, Lincolnshire, June 8, 1800, being the Day appointed for a public Thanksgiving to Almighty God for the Providential Protection of the King from the late atrocious Attempt against his sacred Person. By the Rev. Robert Uvedale, M. A. 4to. 1s. Hurst.

This sermon is well composed, and manifests ability. It recommends religion, or the *fear of God*, as the foundation of all good conduct; and, next, submission to Government. The language is strong, yet not unguarded; and when attentively considered, perhaps few will dissent from its decisions, though they might not express themselves exactly in the same terms.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The author of a *Proposal in Behalf of the married Poor*, mentioned in our last Review, conceives that we have not fully expressed his idea in our account of it. If this be the case, the deficiency was accidental, for we were and are anxious to render him all the justice in our power, because we admired the good sense and general tendency of his little tract. We learn from his letter, however, that he wishes to have it especially considered, that he strongly recommends the extension of parochial allowance to the *families* of the industrious poor, who should not be permitted to become absolute paupers. The *married poor*, he observes, should have their domestic comforts promoted, and their virtuous efforts stimulated, from motives of sound policy as well as of benevolence. We are so strongly of this opinion, that we have repeatedly recommended the *cottage* system, in preference to the plan of *Poor-Houses* or *Houses of Industry*; and if we did not more fully advert to that idea in our account of this writer's *Proposal*, the omission originated in the fear of a too frequent repetition of the same thought, rather than in a wish to withhold from the public any sentiment of this humane author. Similar suggestions are offered by another writer on this subject: see p. 328. of this Review.

The letter from Richmond, in Yorkshire, is under consideration.

The object of F. G.'s application will not be forgotten: but we must request him to exercise some degree of patience, in consideration of the numerous calls on our attention.

☞ In the Review for June, p. 210. l. 12. from bott. insert *that* after '*mentions*.' P. 212. l. 32. dele the comma after '*instead*.' P. 217. l. 20. dele the comma after '*will*.'

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THE

MONTHLY REVIEW,

For AUGUST, 1801.

Art. I. *An Account of Travels into the Interior of Southern Africa,* in the Years 1797 and 1798: including cursory Observations on the Geology and Geography of the Southern Part of that Continent; the natural History of such Objects as occurred in the animal, vegetable, and mineral Kingdoms; and Sketches of the physical and moral Characters of the various Tribes of Inhabitants surrounding the Settlement of the Cape of Good Hope. To which is annexed, a Description of the present State, Population, and Produce of that extensive Colony; with a Map constructed entirely from actual Observations made in the Course of the Travels. By John Barrow, late Secretary to the Earl of Macartney, and Auditor-General of the Public Accounts at the Cape of Good Hope. 4to. pp. 420. 1 l. 10s. Boards. Cadell jun. and Davies. 1801.

Although it were almost hopeless to attempt to imitate the magnificent manner in which Johnson enumerates the faculties and accomplishments requisite to form a *Poet*, it would be easy, on his plan, to make a most discouraging catalogue of the bodily and mental qualifications which a *Traveller* ought to possess, or which would be advantageous to him: since, in addition to mental acuteness, judgment, discrimination, equanimity, patience, and the perfection of the corporeal powers, what part of human science or learning can be pronounced useless, or may not be called into exercise by particular exigences and circumstances? Ostentatious learning, or affected scrupulosity, or the daintiness of inordinate refinement, might thus indeed demand that a traveller should be endowed as never man was nor will be endowed: but, as the circle of virtues and attainments, within which individual excellence must ever be confined, is of no vast extent, we must expect to meet perpetually with things far beneath perfection; and we have reason for rejoicing when productions which are above mediocrity occur.

Leaving, however, the field of unsatisfactory speculation, many parts of learning and science may confidently be pronounced to be useless to a traveller whose purposes and destination

tion are marked by certain circumstances; or, with greater propriety, we may affirm that in different undertakings different qualities are necessary. The hardihood, the patience, and the perseverance, which bore a man through barbarous nations to the banks of the Niger, might be superfluous to the wealthy traveller who visits a civilized country, in order to inspect its arts and manufactures, and to observe the genius, temper, habits, and manners of its inhabitants;—the natural philosopher who ascends Etna, and the classical enthusiast who visits the Troad, have distinct objects to accomplish by appropriate acquirements;—and the science, which instructed the astronomer on Mount Schehallian to verify the principle of gravitation, would be unprofitable to him who traces the vestiges of departed magnificence, or ponders over the monuments of antient art.

The author of the travels recorded in the volume before us may, or may not, be gifted with many more accomplishments than those to which his work gives testimony: but certainly the qualities necessary for an undertaking like that in which he engaged, and for the subsequent description and narration of its result, he seems in a very eminent manner to possess. He has not only informed us what are the general appearances and nature of the country, what plants are produced, and what are the dispositions and customs of the inhabitants, but he has viewed the regions under his inspection with the eye of a politician, and has inquired what new productions in the animal and vegetable kingdoms may be advantageously introduced; he has pointed out the spots proper for watering places; and the bays of good anchorage; and with the feelings and views of enlightened humanity, he has reprobated the cruel treatment of the Hottentots, and suggested means for bettering their condition.

The first chapter of the work is introduced by an extract from the Records of the East India Company, respecting the act of taking possession of the Cape of Good Hope in the year 1620.—The subsequent history of the colony, under the Dutch Government, is next briefly related. While the Cape remained in the hands of these its old masters, scarcely any thing was done towards ascertaining the geography of the country: the only travellers, whose sole view was to acquire useful information, having been the Governor Van Plettenberg and Colonel Gordon; who fixed the eastern boundaries of the colony on the spot as they now stand. The settlement, however, being captured by the English in 1796, it was the object of the several expeditions performed by Mr. Barrow, to complete the line of demarcation through the heart of the country, to the western shore. The journies were made in the years

1797

1797 and 1798; and they supplied materials for a chart executed by the orders of the Earl of Macartney, and which is prefixed to Mr. Barrow's publication. This chart was constructed entirely from actual observations of latitude and of bearings, from the estimation of distances, and from frequent angular intersections of remarkable objects:

' From this chart (says the author) it appears that the extent and dimensions of the territory composing the colony of the Cape of Good Hope, now permanently fixed, are as follows:

' Length from west to east.	
Cape Point to Kaffer Land, - - -	580 miles.
River Koussie to Zuureberg, - -	520 ——
Breadth from south to north.	
River Koussie to Cape Point, - -	315 ——
Nieuwveldt Mountains to Plettenberg's Bay, -	160 ——
Mouth of the Tush-river to Plettenberg's baaken,	225 ——

which gives a parallelogram whose mean length is 550, and mean breadth 233, English miles, comprehending an area of 128,150 square miles. This great extent of country, deducting the population of Cape Town, is peopled by about 15,000 white inhabitants, so that each individual might possess eight and a half square miles of ground. A very great portion, however, of this territory may be considered as an unprofitable waste, unfit for any sort of culture, or even to be employed as pasture for the support of cattle. Level plains, consisting of a hard impenetrable surface of clay, thinly sprinkled over with chrystallized sand, condemned to perpetual drought, and producing only a few straggling tufts of acrid, saline, and succulent plants, and chains of vast mountains that are either totally naked, or cloathed in parts with sour grasses only, or such plants as are noxious to animal life, compose at least one half of the colony of the Cape. These chains of mountains and the interjacent plains are extended generally in the direction of east and west, except indeed that particular range which, beginning at False Bay, opposite to the Cape Point, stretches to the northward along the western coast as far as the mouth of Olifant's river, which is about 210 miles.'

The territory comprehended under the name of the *Cape of Good Hope* is divided into four districts; over each of which presides a *Landrost*, who, with a council of six country burghers, regulates the police, superintends the government, and determines petty causes: but his decisions are subject to an appeal to the court of justice in *Cape Town*, the metropolis of the settlement.

The usual places of resort for ships trading to the Cape are False Bay and Table Bay, the one washing the southern and the other the northern shore of the Isthmus. There are also two small bays on the west side of the Peninsula, one called Hout or Wood Bay, and the other Chapman's Bay:

'All these bays, (says Mr. Barrow) the passes of the mountains, and indeed every part of the peninsula, are capable of being maintained, if properly garrisoned, against any attack that will probably be ever made against them. Most of the works, batteries, and lines, have undergone a complete repair, with many improvements; and others have been judiciously added, by the British engineers. The pass at the foot of Müisenberg, a steep high mountain, washed by False Bay, and the only road of communication between Simon's Bay and the Cape, may now be considered as impregnable, though the Dutch suffered themselves very easily to be driven out of it. It is the Thermopylæ of the Cape; and from the several breast-works, lately constructed along the heights, a *chosen band* of three hundred rifle men ought to stop the progress of an army.'

Timber of all kinds for building is very rare at the Cape, yet little pains have been taken to cultivate it near the town. In parts of the country not far distant, plantations of oak trees, of the white poplar, and of the stone pine, are to be found, and thrive rapidly: but their timber is generally unsound. The article of fuel is so scarce at Cape Town, that a small cart load composed of the branches of the silver tree, of the larger heaths, &c. sells from twenty to eight-and-twenty shillings. A slave is usually kept in families for the sole purpose of collecting fire-wood; and the annual expence in a moderate family, for faggots for the kitchen-fire, (the only one in the house) is nearly fifty-pounds. To remedy this evil, Lord Macartney ordered a search to be made for fossil coal; and the operation of boring was begun on a tongue of land projecting from the Table Mountain: but it was soon discontinued, on the discovery of actual coal *coming out to day*, along the banks of a deep rivulet flowing out of the Tygerberg Hill. The coal already found is at the depth of two feet: but, when Mr. Barrow wrote his account, the borer had been put down in several places in hopes of meeting with the main bed, without success.

Though the inhabitants of the Cape Town suffer the inconvenience of scarcity of fuel, they enjoy several natural advantages; and their market is supplied with abundance of sea fish, with fruits, and with vegetables. Some of their vineyards are of sufficient extent to produce, besides the supply of the market with grapes and prepared raisins, about 100,000 gallons of wine annually.

The Botanist may find an ample field of investigation in the Cape district. Its vegetable productions, Mr. Barrow says, (and he is good authority, since he appears to be himself a cultivator of natural history) are more numerous, varied, and elegant, than on any other spot of equal extent in the whole world; and of the frutescent or shrubby plants, there is likewise great abundance.

ance. To zoologists, the animals of the Cape afford a more contracted scope.

Insects of every description abound during the summer months: musquitoes are less troublesome than in most warm climates: but a small sand fly, almost invisible, is the cause of great torment.—Almost all the snakes of the country are venomous.—The fatal diseases, which prevail among the natives, Mr. B. attributes to their habits of life, rather than to the climate; in support of which opinion, he remarks that the English troops enjoy uncommonly good health in this colony.

The Malay slaves are said to be active and docile, faithful and honest, but dangerous on account of their impetuosity and vengeful temper. Mr. B. relates an instance of refinement of revenge in one of these people, which we can scarcely credit: perhaps the story has lost much of its original truth, and has gained some false embellishments. It is thus told:

> 'A Malay conceiving that he not only had served his master sufficiently long, and with great fidelity, but had also paid him several sums of money, he was tempted to demand his liberty, and met with a refusal. The following morning the Malay murdered his fellow-slave. On being taken and brought up for examination before a commission of the Court of Justice, he acknowleged that the boy he had murdered was his friend; but he had considered that the most effectual way to be revenged of his master was, not by taking away his life, but by robbing him of the value of a thousand rix-dollars, by the loss of the boy, and another thousand by bringing himself, in so doing, to the gallows; the recollection of which would prey upon his avaricious mind for the remainder of his life.'

Of the inhabitants of the Cape, and of their situation under the English Government, Mr. Barrow thus writes:

> 'The education of youth has hitherto been very much neglected. The government never hit upon any successful plan for the establishment of public schools; and the individual had no other ambition but that of qualifying his sons, by writing and accounts, to become servants of the Company. This body of merchants had a number of persons in their employ who were very ill paid. Their salaries indeed were insufficient to afford them a bare subsistence; but it tacitly allowed them to negociate for themselves. The consequence of such a conduct was, that each became a kind of petty dealer. Each had his little private shop in some corner of his house. The most paltry articles were in the list of their commodities for sale; and those who ranked high in the government, and assumed a string of full-sounding epithets to their names, felt no sort of indignity in retailing the produce of their gardens; not indeed avowedly, but through the medium of their slaves. In fact, the minds of every class, the governor, the clergy, the fiscal, and the secretary of the court of justice excepted, were wholly bent on trade. *Koopman* or merchant was a title that conferred rank at the Cape, to which the

military even aspired. On this subject the ideas of the Dutch differ widely from those of the Chinese, who have degraded the merchant into the very lowest order of their society.

'That portion of the day, not employed in the concerns of trade, is usually devoted to the gratification of the sensual appetites. Few have any taste for reading, and none for the cultivation of the fine arts. They have no kind of public amusements except occasional balls; nor is there much social intercourse but by family parties, which usually consist of card-playing or dancing. Money-matters and merchandise engross their whole conversation. Yet none are opulent, though many in easy circumstances. There are no beggars in the whole colony; and but a few who are the objects of public charity. The subsistence for these is derived from the interest of a fund established out of the church superfluities, from alms, donations, and collections made after divine service, and not from any tax laid upon the public. Except, indeed, a few colonial assessments for the repairs of the streets and public works, the inhabitants of the Cape have little drawback on their profits or the produce of their labour.'—

'It has been the remark of most travellers that the ladies of the Cape are pretty, lively, and good-humoured; possessing little of that phlegmatic temper which is a principal trait in the national character of the Dutch. The difference in the manners and appearance of the young men and the young women, in the same family, is inconceivably great. The former are clumsy in their shape, aukward in their carriage, and of an unsociable disposition; whilst the latter are generally of a small delicate form, below the middle size, of easy and unaffected manners, well dressed, and fond of social intercourse, an indulgence in which they are seldom restrained by their parents, and which they as seldom turn to abuse. They are here indeed less dependant on, and less subject to, the caprice of parents than elsewhere. Primogeniture entitles to no advantages; but all the children, male and female, share alike in the family property. No parent can disinherit a child without assigning, on proof, one at least of the fourteen reasons enumerated in the Justinian Code. By the law of the colony, a community of all property, both real and personal, is supposed to take place on the marriage of two persons, unless the contrary should be particularly provided against by solemn contract made before marriage. Where no such contract exists, the children, on the death of either parent, are entitled to that half of the joint property which was supposed to belong to the deceased, and which cannot be withheld on application after they are come of age.

'It is but justice to the young females of the Cape to remark, that many of them have profited much more than could be expected from the limited means of education that the place affords. In the better families, most of them are taught music, and some have acquired a tolerable degree of execution. Many understand the French language, and some have made great proficiency in the English. They are expert at the needle, at all kinds of lace, knotting, and tambour work, and in general make up their own dresses, following the prevailing fashions of England brought from time to time by the female passengers bound to India, from whom they may be said to

"Catch the manners living as they rise."

'Neither are the other sex, while boys, deficient in vivacity or talent; but for want of the means of a proper education, to open their minds and excite in them a desire of knowledge, they soon degenerate into the common routine of eating, smoaking, and sleeping. Few of the male inhabitants associate with the English, except such as hold employments under the government. This backwardness may be owing in part to the different habits of the two nations, and partly, perhaps, to the reluctance that a vanquished people must always feel in mixing with their conquerors. No real cause, however, of complaint or disaffection could possibly be alleged against the English government at the Cape. No new taxes have been imposed since the conquest; but, on the contrary, some of the old ones have been diminished, and others modified. The demand and value of every production of the colony have very considerably increased, while the articles of import have fallen, in their prices. More than 200,000 rixdollars of arrears in rent of land have been remitted to the inhabitants by the British government, as well as 180,000 rixdollars of dubious debts. They have preserved their laws and their religion, both of which continue to be administered by their own people. They enjoy as great a share of rational liberty as men, bound to each other, and to the whole, by the ties that a state of society necessarily imposes, could possibly expect, and much greater than under their former government. Property has been secure in every instance, and has been raised to double its former value: and none has the loss of life of any friend or relation to lament at the time of, or since, the capture. Their paper currency, fabricated by the government in order to get over a temporary distress, but which it had never been able to take out of circulation, bore a depreciation of 40 *per cent.* and a silver dollar was scarcely to be seen. The former is now at par with specie, and not less than two millions of the latter have been sent from England and thrown into circulation. Every person enjoys his share of the general prosperity. The proprietor of houses in town has more than doubled his rent; and the farmer in the country, where formerly he received a rixdollar for each of his sheep, now receives three. Four years of increasing prosperity, of uninterrupted peace and domestic tranquillity, have been the happy lot of the inhabitants of the Cape of Good Hope.'

In chapter II. Mr. B. relates his journey from the Cape across the Karroo, or Arid Desert, to the Drosdy of Graaff Reynet. This excursion was made in the month of July; the author proceeding with covered waggons drawn by bullocks, who travel at the rate of three miles in an hour for eleven or twelve hours unremittingly. The journeys at the Cape are in general performed in the night, in order that during the day the oxen may brouse among the shrubbery, which is their common food;

since, in the dry season, the ground does not produce a single blade of grass.—After a description of the nature and productions of the country lying between Cape Town and the entrance of the Karoo, which is too interesting to be abridged, and too long to be inserted here, Mr. Barrow gives the following account of the Farmer of the Country, the Dutch Peasant, or Boor:

'A true Dutch peasant, or boor as he styles himself, has not the smallest idea of what an English farmer means by the word comfort. Placed in a country where not only the necessaries, but almost every luxury of life might by industry be procured, he has the enjoyment of none of them. Though he has cattle in abundance, he makes very little use of milk or of butter. In the midst of a soil and climate most favourable for the cultivation of the vine, he drinks no wine. He makes use of few or no vegetables nor roots. Three times a-day his table is loaded with masses of mutton, swimming in the grease of the sheep's tail. His house is either open to the roof, or covered only with rough poles and turf, affording a favourable shelter for scorpions and spiders; and the earthy floors are covered with dust and dirt, and swarm with insects, particularly with a species of the *termes*, which, though not so destructive as some others of this genus, is nevertheless a very troublesome and disagreeable animal. His apartments, if he happens to have more than one, which is not always the case among the grazing farmers, are nearly destituous exhilarations of public festivals.—Yet, rude and ignorant as the peasantry are, the virtues of hospitality are cultivated by them to excess; and all travellers are equally welcome to the best food and accommodation which their means can supply.

Mr. Barrow and his company waited in the Hex-river Valley two days, principally for the arrival of two farmers who, besides their knowlege of the places at which water was to be found in the Karoo, were necessary to strengthen the party against the attacks of the savage Hottentots, or Bosjesmans.

'To oppose these Bosjesmans, (says Mr. B.) the farmers generally cross the desart in parties, and strongly armed. The poor savage, driven by imperious want to carry off an ox or sheep to his starving family, who have no other abode than the caverns of the mountains, often pays in the attempt the forfeit of his life; but it rarely happens that any of the colonists fall by his hands. Yet the name of Bosjesman is held in horror and detestation; and a farmer thinks he cannot proclaim a more meritorious action than the murder of one of these people. A boor from Graaff Reynet being asked in the secretary's office, a few days before we left the town, if the savages were numerous or troublesome on the road, replied, he had only shot four, with as much composure and indifference as if he had been speaking of four partridges. I myself have heard one of the humane colonists boast of having destroyed with his own hands near three hundred of these unfortunate wretches.'

Mr. B. then describes the journey across the desart; and, on the occasion of meeting with a species of salsola or saltwort, from the ashes of which the Hottentots make their soap, he observes:

'These ashes, when carefully burnt and collected, are a pure white caustic alkali, a solution of which, mixed up with the oily fat of the large broad tails of the sheep of the colony, and boiled slowly for five or six days, takes the consistency and the quality of an excellent white soap. This salsola grows in almost every part of Southern Africa, but particularly on those plains known by the name of Karroo, and in such abundance that, supposing the plant, after being cut down and burnt, to be reproduced in five years, the quantity of soda, or barrilla, that might annually be made from the ashes, would be sufficient, beside serving the colony, for the whole consumption of Great Britain: and as enormous sums of money have always been, and continue to be, drawn from England to pay the imports of this article, it may perhaps be considered as an object worthy of further inquiry.'

Among the hills surrounding the plain of Geel-beck, our traveller saw a small herd of Zebras, and of Quachas (wild horses). The latter are easily made docile; and Mr. B. suggests that the former might also be rendered tractable under any other management than that of the indolent, stupid, and barbarous Dutch peasant.

On many parts of the great desart, Ostriches were seen. This animal, Mr. B. observes, is polygamous; and from ignorance of this circumstance, an error has slipt into the *Systema Naturæ*, in which it is said that one female lays fifty eggs: but the fact is that the different females belonging to one male deposit their eggs in the same nest.

We now arrive at the IIId Chapter, intitled '*Sketches on a journey into the country of the Kaffers.*' On the evening of the 30th day of his travels, Mr. Barrow reached Graaff Reynet, the residence of the Landrost; whose power and importance will not excite much envy, when the following description of the village, in which he holds his state, is read:

> 'The village is chiefly inhabited by mechanics, and such as hold some petty employment under the Landrost. Its appearance is more miserable than that of the poorest village in England. The necessaries of life are with difficulty procured in it; for, though there be plenty of land, few are found industrious enough to cultivate it. No milk, no butter, no cheese, no vegetables of any kind, are to be had upon any terms. There is no butcher, no chandler, no grocer, no baker. Every one must provide for himself as well as he can. They have neither wine nor beer; and the chief beverage of the inhabitants is the water of the Sunday river, which, in the summer season, is strongly impregnated with salt.'

On the evening of the 18th, Mr. B. arrived at Zwart-kops, or Algoa bay, situated in latitude 33°.56′ South, longitude 26°.53′ East of Greenwich, and distant from the Cape in a direct line 500 miles. He is of opinion that, from the vicinity of this place to the salt pans, from the ease of procuring bullocks in good condition, and from the abundance of excellent fish on the coast, great benefits would accrue to the East India Company, if an establishment were formed for the preparation of salted beef and fish.

In the valley through which the Zwart-kops river flows, the author found a species of antelope, or goat, called the *Riet-Bok*, or red goat, hitherto undescribed by naturalists.

Mr. B.'s account of the Hottentots is too interesting, and too creditable to the writer, to be wholly omitted :

' Twenty years ago, if we may credit the travellers of that day, the country beyond Camtoos river, which was then the eastern limit of the colony, abounded with kraals or villages of Hottentots, out of which the inhabitants came to meet them by hundreds in a groupe. Some of these villages might still have been expected to remain in this remote and not very populous part of the colony. Not one, however, was to be found. There is not in the whole extensive district of Graaff Reynet a single horde of independent Hottentots; and perhaps not a score of individuals who are not actually in the service of the Dutch. These weak people, the most helpless, and in their present condition perhaps the most wretched, of the human race, duped out of their possessions, their country, and finally out of their liberty, have entailed upon their miserable offspring a state of existence to which that of slavery might bear the comparison of happiness. It is a condition, however, not likely to continue to a very remote posterity. The name of Hottentot will be forgotten, or remembered only as that of a deceased person of little note. Their numbers of late years have rapidly declined. It has generally been observed that wherever Europeans have colonized, the less civilized natives have always dwindled away, and at length totally disappeared. Various causes have contributed to the depopulation of the Hottentots. The impolitic custom of hording together in families, and of not marrying out of their own kraals, has no doubt tended to enervate this race of men, and reduced them to their present degenerated condition, which is that of a languid, listless, phlegmatic people, in whom the prolific powers of nature seem to be almost exhausted. To this may be added their extreme poverty, scantiness of food, and continual dejection of mind, arising from the cruel treatment they receive from an inhuman and unfeeling peasantry, who having discovered themselves to be removed to too great a distance from the seat of their former government to be awed by its authority, have exercised, in the most wanton and barbarous manner, an absolute power over these poor wretches reduced to the necessity of depending upon them for a morsel of bread. There is scarcely an instance of cruelty said to have been committed against the slaves in the West-

India iſlands, that could not find a parallel from the Dutch farmers of the remote parts of the colony towards the Hottentots in their service. Beating and cutting them with thongs of the hide of the sea-cow or rhinosceros, is a gentle punishment, though these sort of whips which they call *shambos* are most horrid instruments, tough, pliant, and heavy almost as lead. Firing small shot into the legs and thighs of a Hottentot is a punishment not unknown to some of the monsters who inhabit the neighbourhood of Camtoos river. Instant death is not unfrequently the consequence of punishing these poor wretches in a moment of rage. This is of little consequence to the farmer; for though they are to all intents and purposes his slaves, yet they are not transferable property. It is this circumstance which, in his mind, makes their lives less valuable and their treatment more inhuman.

'In offences of too small moment to stir up the phlegm of a Dutch peasant, the coolness and tranquillity displayed at the punishment of his slave or Hottentot is highly ridiculous, and at the same time indicative of a savage disposition to unfeeling cruelty lurking in his heart. He flogs them, not by any given number of lashes, but by time; and as they have no clocks nor substitutes for them capable of marking the smaller divisions of time, he has invented an excuse for the indulgence of one of his most favourite sensualities, by flogging them till he has smoked as many pipes of tobacco as he may judge the magnitude of the crime to deserve. The government of Malacca, according to the manuscript journal of an intelligent officer in the added to the good nature that overspread their features, shewed them at once to be equally unconscious of fear, suspicion, and treachery. A young man about twenty, of six feet ten inches high, (qu?) was one of the finest figures that perhaps was ever created. He was a perfect Hercules; and a cast from his body would not have disgraced the pedestal of that deity in the Farnese palace. Many of them had indeed very much the appearance of bronze figures.'

On the 2d of September, the travellers left the first party of the Kaffers, in order to proceed towards the residence of the king Gaika. On the occasion of passing a dangerous and difficult defile, Mr. Barrow relates an instance of the most atrocious inhumanity, towards the exhausted oxen of one of the teams: but this, unfortunately, is no solitary record of brutality. Even in the neighbourhood of the Cape, the feelings of humanity would be continually irritated by acts of cruelty. We hope, however, that the representations of Mr. Barrow will tend to direct the attention of the English rulers, to the sufferings of innocent and useful animals, in these uncivilized regions.

After having visited the mouth of the great fish river, Mr. B. and his companions arrived at the residence of the king of the Kaffers, who readily concluded a treaty with the representatives of the English government. Mr. B. gives the articles of the treaty, and then adds an account of the Kaffers; which is ample, interesting, and demonstrative of the happiness of their state.—Our narrow limits prevent us from giving any extracts from this part of the work; and we do not choose to mar the description by abridgment. One fact, however, which is soon related, we shall notice; viz. that the Kaffers expose their dead to wild beasts. The feelings of the relations of the deceased are not shocked by this custom; and the body is almost immediately dragged into dens by wolves: on which account, the life of the wolf is held sacred by a Kaffer.

All business with the Kaffer king having been transacted, the party proceeded to examine the mouth of the river Keiskamma: which is here nearly as wide as the Thames at Woolwich, and apparently of great depth: but the entrance is guarded by a bar of sand, on which the surf breaks with great violence. From the Keiskamma, the travellers returned by a new route to Graaff Reynet, which place they reached on the 30th September.

Mr. Barrow remained during three weeks at Graaff Reynet, and then undertook another expedition to the Northward, across the Sneuwberg, which is the subject of the IVth chapter. His object was to observe the nature and manners of the race of men called Bosjesmans, or men of the bushes, who neither cultivate the land nor breed cattle, but live by depredation; and to form small treaties of accommodation with them. Three days' journey carried the party into the plains which are within the Sneuwberg; and one of the retreats of the Bosjesmans (which retreats are in chasms formed by the torrents rushing down the sides of the high stratified mountains,) was soon discovered:

'The fires (says Mr. B.) were scarcely extinguished, and the grass on which they had slept was not yet withered. On the smooth sides of the cavern were drawings of several animals that had been made from time to time by these savages. Many of them were caricatures; but others were too well executed not to arrest attention. The different antelopes that were there delineated had each their character so well discriminated, that the originals, from whence the representations had been taken, could, without any difficulty, be ascertained. Among the numerous animals that were drawn, was the figure of a zebra remarkably well done; all the marks and characters of this animal were accurately represented, and the proportions were seemingly correct. The force and spirit of drawings, given to them by bold touches judiciously applied, and by the effect of light and shadow, could not be expected from savages; but for accuracy of outline and correctness of the different parts, worse drawings than that of the zebra have passed through the engraver's hands. The materials with which visages: their bellies are uncommonly protuberant, and their backs are hollow: yet their activity is incredibly great.* Like other savages, they are extremely voracious: with them, it is either a feast or a famine: when successful in bringing home cattle from a plundering party, they slay them in such numbers, that the kraal soon becomes a mass of putrefaction; and flights of Vultures are seen hovering over it:

'The three Bosjesmans who accompanied us to our waggons, (says Mr. Barrow) had a sheep given to them about five in the evening, which was entirely consumed by them before the noon of the following day. They continued, however, to eat all night, without sleep and without intermission, till they had finished the whole animal. After this their lank bellies were distended to such a degree that they looked less like human creatures than before. Accustomed to food of a strong and pungent quality, simple water seemed to have no relish for them: they prepared a beverage that was excessively disgusting: having cut the throat of the sheep, they opened the belly to let the blood run among the entrails; then cutting these with a knife, and pouring in a quantity of water, they stirred up all together, and drank the nauseous mixture with an appetite that sufficiently shewed it to be suited to their taste.'

The travellers proceeded some way along the bank of the Sea-Cow river, and then came to its junction with a vast stream, called by Colonel Gordon the *Orange river*; which, in size and bulk of water, more than equals all the other rivers of the colony taken collectively; its general breadth at 500 miles distance from its mouth being 300 yards, when free from inundations; for, like the Nile, the Orange river has its periodical overflowings.

An object of considerable importance with Mr. Barrow was to ascertain the existence of the Unicorn. Many caverns were fruitlessly explored, with the hopes of finding the delineation of this animal among the drawings of the Bosjesmans: when, at length, in a high and concealed kloof, was discovered part of a figure intended as the representation of a beast with a single horn projecting from the forehead. Of this figure, as it was found on the sides of the cavern, Mr. B. has given a fac simile; and this delineation of an animal with a single horn affords some slight arguments for the existence of a living original. If the fac simile be faithful, it also bears strong evidence of the graphical skill of the Bosjesmans. On the probability of the existence of an Unicorn, Mr. B. enters into a discussion of four or five pages.

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* Mr. Barrow relates and discusses some peculiarities of physical conformation among these people, similar to such as have been described in the Hottentots which are not fit subjects for our pages. He controverts and (we think) refutes the opinion of a French traveller, that these appearances are the effects of art.

On the 24th day after their departure, the travellers returned to Graaff Reynet; and this period was marked by the circumstance of excessive heat: the thermometer, when exposed to the wind in the shade, standing at 108°.

Chapter V. Contains *Sketches on a Journey from Graaff Reynet along the Sea coast to the Cape.*—When the expedition arrived at Graaff Reynet, it was found that the passage of the great desert was impracticable, on account of the scarcity of water and herbage. At length, however, after a heavy and continued rain, the journey was attempted and effected, though under circumstances of great distress and danger. The rain had not extended far into the country; and, for four days, the travellers endured the mortification and hardship of finding springs and rivers completely dried up: but on the sixth day, fresh water was happily obtained in a stream called Keurfonteyn, or choice spring.

In the route from Graaff Reynet to the Cape, it is necessary to cross a chain of mountains; and the point of the passage is at a mountain emphatically called Duyvil's kop, or the Devil's head: for here the road is dreadfully steep and stoney, formed by steps over some of which it was necessary to lift the waggons by main strength:

> 'Just as we reached the summit, (says Mr. Barrow) the weather, which had been remarkably pleasant, the thermometer standing at 74°, now began to be overcast, the wind blew fresh, and shortly after an immense sheet of black vapor was observed to approach, borne upon the south-east wind from the sea. Ascending rapidly in rolling volumes, it completely immersed us upon the summit of the mountain. The temperature of the air was immediately decreased to 39° of Fahrenheit. Before our three waggons had got over the highest peak, the weather began to clear up, and it was then curious enough to observe that part of the country between the mountains and the sea involved in dense clouds, and deluged apparently with heavy rain, whilst the northern side of the same mountains enjoyed a sunshine unsullied by a single cloud.
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> 'The instability of the climate of the southern angle of Africa, has frequently been noticed in the course of these sketches; yet a more remarkable instance of it had not perhaps occurred than in the present situation. An elevation of about one thousand feet, or little more, produced a variation of temperature, in the course of two hours, equal to thirty-five degrees. It afterwards appeared, that, on the same day, being the longest in the year, snow had fallen and lain for some time upon the same chain of mountains, close behind Zwellendam, where it is not particularly lofty.'

Having crossed the Crocodile river, the Gauritz river, (the sudden and copious rise of which is so extraordinary, as to have once destroyed a house nearly an hundred feet above the level of its channel,) and various other streams, the travellers reached Cape Town on the 18th of January, after a tour of seven months' duration; in the course of which, says Mr. B. 'many personal inconveniences and difficulties had occurred, to be borne and surmounted only by a determination to gratify curiosity at the expence of comfort.'

Chapter VI. and last contains *Sketches on a Journey into the Country of the Namaaquas.*—This chapter, like its predecessors, contains much curious and interesting matter concerning the face of the country which was explored, its productions, &c. On the occasion of the author's Hottentot following, for a considerable distance, the traces of the waggon, he notes the sagacity of this race of people in *investigation*:

> 'At this sort of business a Hottentot is uncommonly clever. There is not an animal among the numbers that range the wilds of Africa, if he be at all acquainted with it, the print of whose feet he cannot distinguish. And though the marks by which his judgment is directed be very nice, they are constant in animals in a state of nature, whereas domesticated animals are liable to many accidental variations. He will distinguish the wolf for instance, from the domestic dog, by the largeness of the ball of the foot, and the comparative smallness of the toes. The print of any of his companions' feet he would single out among a thousand. The peasantry are also tolerably expert in tracing game by the marks of their feet; it is, in fact, a part of their education. An African boor gains a sort of reputation by being clever *op het spoor*. This is the method by which, on moonlight nights, they hunt down the poor Bosjesmans.'

The Hartebeest river, contrary to expectation, being perfectly dry, 'the experiment of digging was made in the bed of the river, and at five feet under the pebbly and chrystallized sand, the fragments apparently of decomposed granite, was a stream of clear fresh water; and from various experiments afterwards made in the sandy beds of the rivers of the Namaaqua country, I am inclined to think, that subterranean streams of water pass under most of them in this part of Africa.'

On the second of June, after an absence of nearly eight weeks, Mr. B. returned to Cape Town; his journey having been performed in the most unfavourable season of the year, but fortunately without those inconveniences which were naturally to be expected and dreaded.

The extracts which we have given from this publication are sufficient, perhaps, to incite rational curiosity to the perusal of the whole work, by affording satisfactory specimens of the ability with which subjects of interest and importance are discussed. Our quotations, however, are not to be deemed the most important parts; since those topics, which are most worthy of attention, are treated at the greatest length, and of these ample discussions our limits preclude the insertion.

That the facts related in the present volume are not faithfully stated, there is very slender reason for supposing: while in favour of the author's good faith and accuracy, many arguments may be urged, drawn from previously existing accounts, from probability and analogy, and from internal evidences. With one or two exceptions, Mr. Barrow manifests little disposition to credulity, or to hastiness of judgment. His style is, on the whole, perspicuous and elegant; neither careless nor elaborate; and if in parts it may be censured, it is only when the author wishes to excite something more than sedate and temperate approbation; when he ambitiously aims at excellencies either beyond his reach, or incompatible with the nature of his performance. Amid much lustre, to be offended with a few spots would display malignity of criticism; and those animadversions are to be set aside, that would divert our regards from the general excellencies of a work which, while it entertains its readers, will make them wiser, without causing them to be more depraved; and which is calculated to increase the knowlege of human nature, to enlighten the views of policy, and to excite interest for the concerns of suffering humanity.

Art. II. *Letters written during a Residence in England.* Translated from the French of Henry Meister, together with a Letter from the Margravine of Anspach to the Author. 8vo. pp. 330. 6s. Boards. Longman and Co. 1799.

It was said of Addison's remarks on Italy, that they might have been written by a person who had never visited that country. The same might be observed respecting great part of the letters before us; for, if we take away those which contain political and literary disquisitions on the English constitution, on Shakspeare, on Rousseau's Social Contract, on the English language, and other topics, the knowlege of which does not necessarily imply a residence in England, there will not be much left to convince the reader that the author had ever been in this island. We do not mention this circumstance as derogating from the real merit of the work, which is instructive and entertaining; nor as impeaching its authenticity, since those portions of it which are the fruit of personal knowlege, though constituting the smaller part of it, are still sufficient vouchers for its genuineness: but, when a publication is announced in the form of a book of travels, a reader would not expect a collection of essays on various subjects; and it is our duty to point out that such is the predominating characteristic of this production.

The translator gives the following short account of the author:

'The author, a Swiss by birth, is named Henry Meister; he resided, for twenty years before the French revolution, at Paris, in quality of correspondent and literary agent for the Empress of Russia, the Duke of Brunswick, and the Margrave of Anspach, together with other northern sovereigns; a character in which the great Voltaire himself appears to have been employed by the princes of the house of Brandenburgh, and which, though it does not entitle the person bearing it, to be enrolled in the *corps diplomatique*, is yet necessary to promote the benefit of society; and, if not so honourable, is, perhaps, a more innocent employ than that of an avowed spy under the protection of letters of credence.

'Mr. Meister is now, or was lately, at Zurich, in Switzerland, and is supported by a pension allowed him by the Margrave of Anspach. He is esteemed, by those who know him best, as a worthy and respectable man, possessing much literary knowledge, and more taste.'

The letters are the result of two residences in England, one in the year 1789, the other in 1792. The descriptive part of them is written with considerable vivacity; and the occasional (perhaps unavoidable) inaccuracies of observation, and misapprehension of customs, are properly corrected by the translator in notes.—The respective merits of the actors at the London theatres are accurately estimated; and the characters of our dramatic authors, particularly Shakspeare, are fairly distinguished and appreciated, if we allow for the writer's taste having been formed on the principles of the French drama.—The most conspicuous feature of the political discussions is their anti-republican tendency.—Some very fanciful opinions are dispersed through the work, particularly those on the moral and physical effects of sea-coal; and, in the following passage, the theory is carried to a length so closely bordering on the ludicrous, as to leave us in doubt whether the writer does not mean to give a burlesque exemplification of it. Being at the representation of Romeo and Juliet, when Mrs. Esten played for the first time the part of Juliet, he says:

'Though my attention was fully taken up with the play and the actress, it was not so much so as to prevent me casting my eyes about me. What a disparity betwixt the melancholy silence which reigned here and the agitation of sympathetic feelings which appear in our theatres! My surprize at discovering so few emotions of concern in the countenances of the spectators, was withheld by observing a young person of a very striking figure, who appeared to me the more amiable as she paid great attention to what was passing on the stage. This lovely creature seemed as insensible as the rest, and I began to tax her in my mind with want of feeling, when all of a sudden she fell breathless into the arms of a young gentleman who sat next her. No doubt she had stifled the agitation of her breast till nature was overpowered with the efforts she made to refrain from tears. This happened at the conclusion of the tragedy, when Juliet exclaims, throwing herself on the body of her husband:

Stay, stay for me Romeo,
A moment stay; fate marries us in death,
And we are one, no pow'r shall part us.

Be assured, my friend, *that had this sweet girl never inspired the fumes of seacoal, her tears would have flowed sooner than they did*, and the oppression of her breast would not have been so violent: her feelings might not have been more real, but they would have been more tender and expressive.'

This collection contains also a lively letter from the Margravine of Anspach, respecting the abuses of the English constitution, and the difficulty of characterizing the English nation.

Art. III. *The Daughter of Adoption; a* Tale of Modern Times. By John Beaufort, LL.D. 12mo. 4 Vols. 16s. Boards. R. Phillips. 1801.

This novel is certainly not one of that negative class of insipid and senseless productions, which we see frequently issuing from the press merely to swell the catalogues of circulating libraries. The story is interesting, though singular and improbable; the plot is conducted with considerable skill; the descriptions are animated; the characters, in general, are well supported; and the composition possesses force and vivacity, though in many instances it borders on inflation. The work is evidently the production of a mind of no common powers, and an imagination of no vulgar cast: but its morality is, in our opinion, very exceptionable. Scenes of debauchery and libertinism, in which the hero acts a principal character, are too frequently brought to our view, and described in language too impassioned and prurient.

Seraphina, the heroine, in whose behalf our feelings are excited by all that can interest in suffering beauty and excellence, falls under the dominion of unguarded passion, and becomes the unrepenting mistress of the man whom she loves. It is perhaps less difficult to discover that the author is a Godwinian in principle, and that he is an advocate for the doctrine that individuality of affection and possession constitutes a sacred bond in the sexual union, independently of legal forms and social compacts; than it is to reconcile the conduct of his heroine with the profession of such a principle: since, after a long and steady resistance to the earnest and repeated solicitations of her Henry, she at last consents to be made his wife.

Though the modern philosopher, in his own case and practice, might think it necessary to sacrifice a cock to Esculapius, the fictitious heroine of a romance might surely have maintained a consistency of conduct and principle!—Be the intended moral of this novel, however, what it may, we cannot but condemn a work which represents the loss of female chastity as a matter of light concern, and only to be regretted because it incurs the loss of social respectability; and which tends to lessen the dread of vice by exhibiting a picture of its impunity, and by endowing the frail and guilty with every other quality that can command the love, esteem, and admiration of mankind. We think, also, that the palliating arguments respecting incest, which occur towards the close of the last volume, might as well have been omitted; because, though they are put into the mouth of an excentric Being, and are not made influential in the conduct of the story, yet, as the person who adopts them is an amiable character, and as they stand unopposed, they have too much the appearance of possessing some degree of weight with the author, and too strongly excite the idea that he wishes them to make some impression on the reader.

In the following extracts, will be found two good traits, characteristic of the English sailor:

'While the mind of Edmund was in this agitated state, (during the horrors of the revolt of the negroes in St. Domingo,) an instance of unparallelled barbarity worked up his sympathy to a crisis.

'It was the execution of Aboan, a Koromantyn negro, one of the captive leaders of the insurgents; and who having been in his own country a man of some consequence, a chief, and a leader of armies, did not forget, upon this occasion, to support himself with a degree of magnanimity worthy of his former fame.

'Taken in arms against his purchasers, and found guilty of endeavouring to regain his freedom, he was sentenced to be broken on the wheel, together with Otuba, a principal associate in the revolt.

'The place assigned for the execution was immediately under the window of the apartment in which Henry had taken up his abode. The victims approached the scaffold with an undaunted countenance; and all the inhabitants of Cape François thronged to the spectacle, breathing taunts, and insults, and execrations, and whetting the cruelty of the executioner by every excitement that barbarity could devise.

'The torments of the sufferers were accordingly procrastinated, and aggravated, with every refinement of barbarity; till at last the executioner, weary himself, and disgusted with the scene of horrors, dispatched Otuba with a *coup de grâce*, as it is called; and, after a short pause, uplifting his mace again, was about to perform the same cruel kindness for Aboan.

'But the cannibalism of the populace was yet unsatisfied. "Hold! Hold!" was re-echoed from a hundred tongues. The catastrophe was accordingly delayed; and the wretched Koromantyn, whose every joint was already dislocated, and every bone was broken, was abandoned to the sport and fury of the spectators; who, themselves becoming actors in the bloody scene, aggravated all his sufferings, and procrastinated his tortures; refusing him the wretched privilege of death.

'But Aboan was yet unmoved. He did not supplicate; he did not groan. The sweat drops of agony, indeed, bedewed his mangled limbs; but his eye rolled defiance; and the only sounds that escaped his lips, were those of execration and contempt.

'Thus hour followed hour, and torment succeeded to torment, till at last an English sailor, who served on board a vessel then in the harbour, happening to be on shore, and thronging, like others, to see the spectacle, burst through the crowd, and with characteristic indignation, and a hearty d—n at the cruelty of their French eyes, with a merciful twist of his handkerchief, released the wretched victim from intolerable sufferance.'— — —

"Brave, good fellow!" said Edmunds, shaking him heartily by the hand, while they were talking of that tragical event, "I love and honour thee. Thou hast bowels of compassion, notwithstanding thy rough profession. Thou canst feel for the sufferings of thy fellow beings, whatever be their features or complexions."

"Fellow beings!" replied the sailor; "avast! avast! master, none of that patter neither; though I am a rough sailor, and no scholar, I subject of her marriage, will tend to justify some of our succeeding observations:

'The property, indeed, with the immediate possession of which Henry was vested by this will, was very inconsiderable, in comparison with what he might expect at the death of his father; and Henry's general habits of life seemed very well accommodated to the size of his utmost expectations. Upon this basis, however, when the first transports of his grief had subsided, he began to importune Seraphina for her consent to their legal union.

"Let us delay no longer, my love," said he, "the fulfilment of those preliminaries which may enable the virtues of Seraphina to shine forth in their proper lustre, and place her in the rank to which she is entitled in society. Melancholy, indeed, and ever to be deplored is the event that has enabled me to say so but we have now an independence, even though my father should be inexorable in resenting this act of justice and of virtue."

"An independence, indeed," answered Seraphina, "more than my ambition ever aimed at, or *my* habits would require. But is it such as *you* can be independent upon?"

"Alas! I fear it is not."

"Try—try the experiment first, Henry. Contract your desires. Reform your habits of expense and dissipation. See if you can reconcile yourself to that simplicity of life and manners—that sequestered and philosophical retirement which a contracted income might require.

"O! that you could do so, my Henry! O! that you could!

"Why have you not the fortitude—the wisdom to make the effort? Why has not Seraphina the power to lure you to these paths of peace?"

H. "Doubt not your power, my enchanting Seraphina! Be thou my constant monitor and companion, I will be every thing you can wish."

S. "I needs must doubt, Henry, what I have so often seen to fail. Yet cannot I but wonder that, with powers and faculties like yours, you should want inducement to change your line of conduct.

"Are there no pleasures, thinkest thou, Henry, without the pale of dissipation and expense? Among those complicated powers and faculties that constitute the intellectual agent, Man, are there none that are capable of ministering to his delight, but the grosser ones of sense?

"I would not be a preacher, Henry. I would not exchange the gaiety of my youth, or the softness of my sex, to appear an antiquated pedant in the eyes of the man I love. Yet once in my life, let me yield to the powerful stimulus that seems to prompt my tongue.—Let the mistress be awhile forgotten, while I perform the solemn duty of a friend; and, in the voice of moral exhortation, call upon you, my dearest Henry! to tear yourself from those profligate pursuits and dissipated companions with which you are so unworthily engaged.

"O! try with me, the sweets of a more rational intercourse! Let us commune with the time honoured dead—let us imitate the frugal irtues that, in the illustrious examples of antiquity, never fall to xcite the admiration even of the dissipated and the prodigal. Look nore to intellect, my Henry, and less to sense—walk with the philosophers and the muses, instead of revelling with bacchanalians.

" Let not the Orphic tongue be rendered mute by those licen-ious passions that tore the Thracian bard at Rhodope.

" Assume that higher port of character for which the organizing power of nature, and the instructions of your most excellent mother, have conspired to fashion you. Qualify yourself for those public utilities to which (in this season of alarms and innovations, when the frame of social nature totters, and the foundations of existing institutions seem to be shaking under them) every man of intellect and virtue should consider himself as liable to be called; and, if your active mind still pants for variety, and the levity of youth must have its relaxations from serious pursuits, let the pleasures of fancy diversify those of science; and let not the delirious visions of the bower of Margot be the only effusions of your pen that may gratify the taste, and rouse the tender feelings of posterity.

" Ah, Henry! if, in consenting to become your wife, I could assure myself, that I should bestow upon you, as my dowry, the stedfast, the unrepining resolution to adopt and persevere in this advice, with how much joy—with how proud a consciousness of disinterested rectitude would I embrace your present proposal! For with such resolutions, and such tastes, thou would'st be more happy —ah! three times thrice more happy, with this comparatively hum-

is a pang of loneliness, Henry. This heart has often
d since the loss of your excellent mother (the aspiring
ose society and friendship was no sooner lighted up than
atally extinguished) I have felt, I think, more than ever,
g desire of social intercourse—the happiness that is to be
a small circle of enlightened and congenial minds. But
and all that could result from my acquiescence with your
hes, might be bought too dearly. It would be bought too
Henry should repent—if his accustomed habits should re-
him, and conspiring with the resentment of an inexorable
uld involve him in misery and ruin.
, never shall you accuse your Seraphina with being the
ch calamities as then might overwhelm you.—Never, never
ay—never, never will I expose myself to the anguish of
the glance of your eye, in some distempered moment, of
ing—*This, this do I owe to thee, O Seraphina!—To thee and
ous union!*'

all add no farther remark than that we should be
see talents, such as this writer possesses, more un-
ably employed than in the present instance; and
n such a manner that, while his abilities are readily
ged, the tendency of his labours may be equally
l.

Physiognomical Travels, preceded by a Physiognomical
.—Translated from the German of J. C. A. Musæus, by
lumptre. To which is prefixed, a short Sketch of the Life
aracter of the Author, by his Pupil Kotzebue. 12mo.
12s. boards. Longman and Co. 1800.

ave frequently had occasion for observing, that almost
ry composition which proceeds from a German pen is
treme. Whether the author's purpose be to excite our
melt us into tears, or to shake us with laughter, his
is always in caricature, and presents either a raw head
dy bones, or a grinner through a horse collar. In the
atire on Lavater's System of Physiognomy, the same
r is in some degree apparent. The plan is to represent
siast in physiognomy making a practical application of
ry, deciding on a man's character from the lines of his
ing on that decision, and in course involving himself
and disasters. As the work, however, is extended to
lumes, we deem it greatly defective in the number and
riety of its incidents. It abounds with desultory satire
an works and authors, and on various institutions and
literature exclusively German; and, as the generality
sh readers are unacquainted with the objects, they will
sible to the poignancy of the sarcasm:—yet the translator

professes to have altered or omitted various passages, which were of too local a nature to be understood in this country.

Musæus was undoubtedly a man of talents, and in considerable estimation among his countrymen as an author: but we question whether, as a satirist, he will be so highly approved by the English reader. His ridicule is overdone: his pictures are overcharged: his lines are too coarse and strong; and his colours are too high. His censure bears the same relation to true satire which buffoonery has to genuine wit, or rant to correct declamation. Every feature is strained, and every posture is forced. The opinions which his hero forms, the resolutions which he adopts, his actions, and the various practical applications of his theory, border too much on extravagance, and are in general carried too far from the line of probability, to produce their due effect. The author has a keen sense of the ridiculous, but he does not manage his materials with skill and judgment;—and he possesses very considerable powers of imagination, but they are not under the controul of delicacy of taste: for the work abounds in tropes, metaphors, and similies, low and dignified, mean and sublime, introduced without ceremony, and mingled together without order or selection.

In extracting the author's account of a Physiognomical Court of Judicature, we shall perhaps convey the most favourable specimen that we could have selected, of his talent for ridicule:

'Besides my friend Sportler, as president, the bench consisted of the minister of the parish, a surgeon, and a painter, all able physiognomists, and provided as assistants to strengthen and confirm his decisions; to which were added the usual justices and assessors of the inquisitorial court.

'Before the sitting was opened, an important debate arose upon the propriety of allowing the painter a seat among the judges, since the physiognomical canon excludes painters from the corporation of physiognomists. On this the minister, a profound orientalist, at that very time engaged in a new translation of the Talmud, and who was extremely addicted to interlarding his conversation with allusions to oriental literature, rose, and with great precision and solemnity, delivered his opinion to the following effect:

"The Lavaterian codex," said he, "which may well be nominated the Koran of the science, declares expressly in the ninth section of the fourth volume, that no painter can be admitted into the physiognomical holy of holies.'—'Very few painters,' adds the same passage, are physiognomists.' And I say, too, very few; for I will not take upon myself to assert positively that there may not be exceptions; but this I will advance with confidence, that I never met with any deserving of a place beyond the outward courts of the sanctuary, one who was so truly and completely master of the science as to deserve the priesthood. However," he continued, "I will not venture, as I said

I said before, to deliver a positive opinion upon the present case: in the multitude of counsellors there is safety; and I shall rather assent to the decision of my colleagues *in foro conscientiæ.*"

'The artist defended himself extremely well. He said it was the same with painters as with all other classes of men; very few indeed had the reputation of being complete physiognomists, because very few were sufficiently arrogant to trumpet forth their own fame, or to deliver their sentiments with confidence among such a multitude of pretenders. Perhaps it might be true that no painter was complete master of the science of physiognomy; but he knew no man of any other profession who was so. If a single individual among the company present, felt such entire confidence in his own powers as to be able, with his hand on his heart, conscientiously to declare his firm conviction that he never could be mistaken in his physiognomical judgment, he only was fit to cast the first stone at a neighbour. And now he said, he had given them all a fair challenge; till this stone was cast, he should hold himself as well entitled to a voice in the assembly as the rest. Since no one then grasped at a stone, for this very good reason, that there did not happen to be any stones in the room, the artist remained in quiet possession of his place.

'The culprits were now brought to the bar: a mixed multitude of all nations and languages under the sun. Parthians, and Medes, and Elamites, and the dwellers in Cappadocia and Asia, in Phrygia and Pamphylia, as enumerated in the epistle for Whitsunday: or, rather, they were, in this instance, from the Elbe, the Oder, the Rhine, the Weser, and the Donau; a medley of criminals of all descriptions and denominations. As the clerk of arraigns made proclamation of the crimes with which each stood charged, they were examined with very inquisitive glances from all sides, to see whether they did not change colour; though, strictly speaking, they had no colour to change, since their meagre fare in the Burgholzheim prison had given them somewhat of a cacochymical aspect. Far, however, from manifesting any signs of conscious guilt, some of these poor wretches seemed perfectly insensible to their situations, and to make a jest of the whole matter; one was even so careless and unconcerned as to amuse himself with catching the flies as they settled upon the ballustrade of the bar. I concluded immediately, both from this circumstance as well as from his physiognomy, that he must be a hardened sinner, to whom arraignment in a court of justice was not recommended by novelty.

'I soon perceived that the surgeon was no universalist in the physiognomical art, but a mere partialist, directing his attention entirely to the hair, the beard, and the teeth. At the conclusion of the sitting, I could not help inquiring what might be his motives for confining his observations within such contracted limits? He told me, that he thought these three objects, from the nature of his profession, as barber and surgeon, lay more particularly within his province. For this reason, he said, he had looked over the Fragments in the full confidence of finding among them much useful information on these very important branches of physiognomy; but sorry was he to say that his researches had ended only in disappointment, since the author, through a most culpable degree of negligence, had entirely passed them over. The only thing from which he derived any assistance was from the fellow with his hand raised up in the fifth table of the first part. By the teeth alone, he affirmed, could this man be classed among the ne'er-be-goods; and from this clue he had been led to make a series of observations, by which he was now enabled to determine the character from the physiognomy of the teeth alone, with as much certainty as a naturalist decides by them what animals are, and what are not, carnivorous.

'The painter in the mean time rendered a most important service by sketching the features of the prisoners, which, at the president's desire, were laid before the court to assist the physiognomical decision of the honourable judges. When they were finished, and the delinquents sufficiently examined, the latter were remanded back to prison, that the inquisitors might impart their opinions to each other in private, and consult together upon the verdict.

'The first thing to be arranged was, whether the voting should commence with the president, and descend ftom him downwards; or, whether the lowest in rank among the judges was to speak first, and the voting to ascend from him to the president. Here no difference of opinion prevailed: it was the unanimous wish of the assembly that the great Sportler's sentiments should be first delivered.

'In complying with this request he displayed a degree of knowledge in his peculiar department of physiognomy which never can be exceeded by any votary of the science, and is not likely to be even equalled. He descanted in a very ample manner on the several crimes imputed to the delinquents; pointed out the appropriate features of one crime and those of another; and, by applying these rules to the physiognomies we had been examining, clearly shewed us where the accusations were absolutely false, and where perfectly just, as well as where they were only partially false and true. This was done with an eloquence so irresistible, that not a doubt seemed to remain on the minds of any of the court, but all declared their unqualified assent to every one of his propositions.'—

'By this physiognomical decision, one of the culprits, notwithstanding that he made the most solemn asseverations of his innocence, was condemned, because, as our president very wisely observed, those who deny the charge against them are always the most hardened villains. But to make amends, and to bring the scale of mercy down to a level with that of justice, the master of a public-house, notorious as a receptacle for thieves, and in whose custody stolen goods had actually been found, who, moreover, almost confessed the allegations against him, was acquitted, the president declaring, with no less sagacity, that one of the class to which his physiognomy belonged, must be incapable of committing the offences imputed to him. With respect to some others, judgment was suspended a while, because their lineaments were not of a nature sufficiently decided, to admit the pronouncing of a hasty sentence.

'But among the whole group, not one physiognomy so forcibly arrested Sportler's attention as that of the fly-catcher. He was detained in custody on suspicion of being the author of an incendiary letter, circulated about the country, instigating the people to resist the payment of certain contributions, for which they were called upon by the magistrates. With this the president declared himself by no means satisfied. It was not, he affirmed, the genuine contour of an incendiary, though he acknowleged himself perplexed to decide what else might be the nature of his offence. Thus much, however, he could for a certainty determine, that it was the physiognomy of an enormous criminal; of one who had so far exceeded the common bounds of guilt, that his offence had not yet found a place in any code either physiognomical or juridical. Assuming therefore, an air of extreme mystery, he requested that the man might be brought up again in the afternoon to undergo a private examination before himself, and the criminal judge of the Burgholzheim jurisdiction, alone. This matter being settled, the court was adjourned to the time appointed.'

From the prefixed biographical sketch of Musæus, we learn that he was born at Jena in 1735, his father being one of the magistrates of that town; that he entered into the ministry, and preached several times with considerable applause, but that 'a curious circumstance closed this path against him: he was to have been minister of Pfarrode, a village near Eisenberg, but the peasants would not permit him to become the shepherd of their souls, because he had once been known to dance!'—that he was afterward appointed Governor of the Pages at the Court of Weimar, and then Professor of the Gymnasium there; and that he died in 1787. His character is said to have been so truly amiable, that, 'though he wrote satires, he never had an enemy'; and 'within the walls of Weimar lived not a soul that did not wish him well, for his humour was never mixed with gall: the arrows of his wit were never dipt in poison.'

Of the merits of the translator, our readers will form a judgment from the preceding quotations.

Art. V. *The History of the Campaigns in Germany, Italy, &c.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 261.]

The fifth and last volume of this valuable work narrates the particulars of the campaign in Holland in the year 1799; a subject peculiarly interesting to British readers, and which they will find treated in the author's best style. While we acknowlege ourselves indebted to the predilection here shewn in favour of our country and its inhabitants, we must observe that the effects of flattery are baneful to states as well as to individuals. Britain has faults: but we trust that she possesses that conscious excellence which would induce her to attend, with good humour and candour, while those errors, with which she is chargeable, were fully exposed and freely censured. Her undertakings have often been well planned; she has discovered boldness, vigour, and judgment, in the execution of them; and success has often crowned her attempts: but, on the other hand, exceptions have occurred; and when such present themselves, they who would gloss over the causes which occasion them are friends more to be shunned and dreaded, than the most determined open foes. Whether any blame belongs to those who were concerned in the expedition here recorded, it is not our province to examine: but, if this historian be correct, none lies at the door of our brave soldiers, and their gallant leaders.—Where the author is not an apologist, but keeps within the line of his proper functions, he acquits himself in the best manner; his accounts are clear, circumstantial, and satisfactory;—and equalling, if not rising superior to the merit which he displayed in the fourth volume, he is intitled to the praise of a very accomplished military annalist.

The views with which England set on foot the Dutch expedition, and the grounds for expecting success, are here thus stated:

> ‘ Of all the countries which the fate of war had laid under the yoke of France, that which England naturally must and did most regret to see in her hands, were the United Provinces. She had contributed in 1793 to save them from a threatened invasion: an extraordinary winter, and the reverses experienced by her allies, had put it out of her power in 1795 to prevent this misfortune: she was anxious in 1799 to repair it, to which she was influenced by various powerful motives. Her honour called upon her to effect the deliverance of an ancient and faithful ally.—Her political interest required the re-establishment of a power, which, ever since the American war, and during the three first years of the present, had steadily participated in her views, and made a common cause with her upon the continent.—Her commercial interests enjoined her to recover the most certain and the easiest outlet for the produce of her manufactures, and that of her colonies.—Her naval, her military, and her financial interests, demanded that she should deprive the French of the disposal of the force by sea and land, which they derived from the possession of a country situated with respect to Great Britain so as to threaten constantly its navigation or its coasts, and to force it to ensure the security of both, by maintaining at a great expence a strong squadron in the German ocean.—The embarrassed state of the French finances pointed out how important it was not to leave in the hands of France a country, from which ever since its subjugation, she had annually drawn more than three millions sterling, either in money or military stores.—Finally, the warm interest which Great Britain took in the operations of the combined Imperial armies, inspired her with a wish to facilitate their success, by a powerful diversion.—
>
> ‘ Great as were the motives to undertake the emancipation of Holland, the grounds for hoping that it would be attended with success were not less. The campaign had opened under the most happy

auspices for the Allies, and the months of March and April had produced to them a brilliant series of triumphs. The excellence of their troops—the superiority of their numbers—the high and justly acquired reputation which their commanders possessed—the spirited efforts which were made by the armed inhabitants of Italy and of Switzerland to second them—the obvious discouragement of the French armies—the great diminution of force which they had experienced in so short a time—the extreme repugnance shewn by the conscripts to fill up the void—the almost total want of money, and the embarrassments of every description which the Directory experienced—the energetic dispositions manifested by the two Emperors to support the war—the discontents which again seemed on the point of seriously breaking out in the west of France, and in the Austrian Netherlands—every thing in short afforded grounds for believing, that the successes of the Allies would be rapidly improved; that towards the months of July and August, the entire military resources which France might possess, would be exhausted in repairing the losses which she would then have suffered: that at this period she would even be reduced to the necessity of defending her own frontiers; and that consequently she would not in Holland be able to face a sudden and vigorous attack. The political and commercial bonds which had long united the latter to England—the great number of partizans which the House of Orange and the Stadtholderian government retained—the little ardour with which the inhabitants had adopted a revolution of which the consequences had drained of immense sums a country where money is the first object—the moral impulse which had there, as elsewhere, been given to the public mind by the brilliant opening of the campaign—all these were considerations which, supported by the most authentic information received from that country, afforded reason for thinking that the Dutch would not readily second the efforts of the French, and that, rather than cement with their own blood their state of subjection, they would shed it in the cause of their deliverers.

'Such were the circumstances which authorised the English government to think of an enterprise against Holland: such were the motives which determined it to make the attempt; and such the reasons which afforded hopes of a favourable result.'

The writer's observations on the relative importance of the province of Holland, and that of the capital, are not less curious than (in our judgment) correct:

'The province of Holland, comprehending nearly a fourth of the territory of the Republic, containing half the population*, and

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'* The population of the Seven United Provinces, is generally estimated at near 2,500,000 souls, and that of the province of Holland alone, at 1,200,000, divided between 37 towns, and more than 400 villages. Its territory comprehends 1,800 square miles, while that of all the provinces does not exceed 7,500. Their length is 48 German leagues (about 150 miles), and their breadth 40 (about 125 miles). The province of Holland, from the Helder to Williamstadt, extends 27 leagues, and from West to East 24.'

paying more than two-fifths of the contributions levied upon the whole of the Seven United Provinces, had, both in the interior administration and in the external affairs, so great and manifest a preponderance, that it had become customary in Europe to see in her alone, and to denote by her name only, the Republic of the United Provinces. What Holland was to them, the city of Amsterdam was to this province. It was become, from local circumstances, the most considerable and the richest city of the state; was the depot of wealth, the centre of public and private affairs, the magazine of the commerce of the Republic and of almost the whole North of Europe. From it, in a country created and supported by industry, sprung all the branches of industry—to it all the fruits of industry returned—It contained nearly a sixth part of the population of the United Provinces—it paid a third of the public contributions—it was in every point of view, of much more importance to the confederate state, than its capital is relatively speaking to any other country in Europe. —It may be said to have been at once the soul and the head of the political system.

'Upon the existence therefore of the province of Holland and of Amsterdam, depended in some measure that of the United Provinces.'

The importance of the object of this expedition is not exaggerated by the author; we admit it as fully as he does: but we do not see how he preserves consistency, when he elevates the acquisition of the Dutch fleet to an equality with it. We believe that the defence of this business, said to have been made by the ex-minister of war, and which is retailed here, never convinced the understanding of the country; and that, if inquiry was not permitted, it was because it was proposed to turn less on the merits of the particular question, and of the minister immediately implicated in it, than on those of the administration in general. Indeed, we are much inclined to suspect that the good sense of the author has been no more misled on this subject than that of the British public; and the futile apologies, which he mixes with his admirable narrative, must be attributed to the motives of his heart rather than to the decisions of his judgment.—We shall have occasion to return to some of these considerations, at the close of the present article.

The destination of the expedition was known to the enemy long before its operations commenced; the place of disembarkation alone was kept secret; and this, we are told, was left altogether to the decision of General Sir Ralph Abercromby, by whose determination the Helder was chosen.—The fatal effects of the delay occasioned by the weather appear to be here fully proved and displayed: but we apprehend that on this point the public are sufficiently informed and decided.—The situation of the French and Dutch, on the landing of the British, is thus stated:

'On

the 1st and 2d of September the French troops continued to Alkmaar, where General Brune joined them on the latter of ys. Upon the 3d he inspected the whole line of defence, and new dispositions, of which the execution was proceeded upon e evening, and which were completed in the two following Jpon the 6th the Republican army was concentrated in front naar, with its right at Kustenburg, its centre occupying :ras, and its left extending to the Sand-hills and to the sea oet. Upon the 8th the Batavian division of General Du- having arrived from Amsterdam at Alkmaar, took post in re of the army, that of General Daendels forming the right, French troops the left.—The total number of the army d to about 20,000 men, of whom about 7,000 were French. h was upon the 9th the situation and the force of the Re- s. They expected further reinforcements from Flanders and interior of the United Provinces, and they were arming in r the national guards of the country. They had likewise time in providing for the defence of Amsterdam by sea and un-boats had been fitted out and stationed in the Pampus and e; batteries had been erected upon the coasts; and two entrenchments had been formed, which extended from Mon- n and Purmerend to the Ye. General Brune was well sup- n his measures by the Batavian Directory, in whose minds l march of the French troops had destroyed whatever effect ve been produced by the first events of the expedition. The cumstance had a similar effect upon the minds of the inhabit- Holland, who, although desirous of a change, preferred the e of hope to active exertion.'

ous particulars, highly to the honour of the General who e fallen so gloriously on the plains of Egypt, and which he lamentation and regret so universally produced by astrophe, are related in this work: but, in the choice of lder for a point of landing, the uncertainty of the ele- eems not to have been duly considered; and the deceit- of a general rising in our favour must have been enter- Though the author fixes the responsibility of this mea- our departed hero, we believe that he was incapable of ting any fatal error in the discharge of his professional nd he either acted on false information, which he re- rom those whose province it was to have sifted it, or s were not pursued,—or he was not supported as he had omised. Some one of these suppositions it is reasonable lge, rather than impute blame of such serious magni- a character which had hitherto been so free from it. g but the most positive evidence ought to induce us to n this view of the affair: but, be this as it may, we fully ith an observation reported to have been made by a cele- statesman, that no spot in Europe is more unfavourable sive war, than the one which was chosen; and the ng passage shews that this remark is well founded:

‘ Political and local circumstances were of much more consequence than the sentiments and opinions of Dutch or French. The three weeks which had elapsed from the period when it became evident that the armament was intended against North Holland, had enabled the Republicans to avail themselves of the means of defence which it affords. They had it in their power to chuse, in a manner, from mile to mile in their rear, positions each equally strong—they had had time to convert every dike into an entrenchment—every road into a defile, and every field (if the expression may be used) into a kind of fortress. The extreme *facility* of conveyance by water had *facilitated* to them the means of forming wherever they chose magazines of military stores and of provisions; and it likewise rendered the movements of their troops at once more expeditious and less fatiguing.—Each day would diminish the only disadvantage under which the Republicans laboured, that of inferiority in number. The whole of the troops either of reserve, or new battalions raised by conscription in the United Provinces, in the Netherlands, or in the country between the Meuse and the Rhine, were upon the march towards North Holland; the Directory not having any longer reason to apprehend an invasion of the eastern side of France, since the Archduke Charles had quitted Switzerland with the greatest past of his army.’

Refraining from any general summary of operations, we must be contented to notice a few of the more important events. —The views of both parties in the action of the 19th of September, the particulars of that day, the precipitate and disorderly march of the Russians, the repulse which they experienced, the discouragement which they felt in consequence of this check, their obstinate refusal to form themselves when British assistance arrested the career of their pursuers, and the effect which these circumstances produced on the event of the day, are stated by the present author with great method and perspicuity. The false accounts transmitted by General Essen to his Imperial master are, as we think, satisfactorily refuted; and the writer argues very plausibly in defence of the plan which was followed on this occasion by the British Commander in Chief;—a point on which we do not consider ourselves as competent to give judgment.

In the battle of the 2d of October, the Russians appear to have been as much in one extreme, as they had before been in the other; and but for their inactivity, the main objects of this last day would, according to our author, have been in a great degree attained.—These charges against our co-operators might not only create surprize, but excite suspicions respecting their justice, if the causes which account for the conduct imputed to them were not laid down in a note of great interest and curiosity; we shall present it to our readers:

‘ It may have been remarked that the conduct of the Russians in this affair was directly opposite to what it had been in that of the 19

19th, in the one advancing too far and too rapidly, in the other not far enough and too slowly; in both however ill conforming to the superior orders they had received.

‘ This inequality of conduct cannot be attributed to an inequality of bravery in the troops of that nation, for it is really as uniform as it is generally acknowledged to be—But what they did on the one hand in Holland under General Essen, and in Switzerland under General Korsakow, and on the other in Italy under Marshal Suworow, has proved, that with them more than any other troops, good or bad success depends on the Generals who command them; that they are capable of performing prodigies, under an able leader, and one who knows their particular qualities; and that when they have not this advantage, they are liable to experience greater disasters than the troops of any other nation would have experienced in similar situations.

‘ This is easily understood by any one who knows that the principle of the bravery of the Russians, is a blind obedience to their officers and an absolute contempt of danger; that by means of these two great impulses, the Russian infantry has become equal if not superior to the best which exists, but that in it alone consist all the strength and merit of the Russian army; that their cavalry, their artillery, and particularly their staff and corps of engineers are very inferior; and that the greater part of their subaltern officers are incapable of any thing beyond obedience.—From this it results that the General alone ought to supply the inequality in the different branches of the army, and that if he is destitute of talent, if he cannot himself from local circumstances direct the different corps, if he has been killed or made prisoner, this misfortune cannot as in most other great armies of Europe, be repaired by a staff accustomed to take a part in all the details of command, and by the tried intelligence of subaltern officers, and in some degree of the soldier himself.

‘ These defects in the composition of the Russian armies have been acknowledged by Marshal Suworow, and certainly no person knew better than he did the particular genius of his nation, and the means of turning it to the best advantage. Those who have observed his conduct, may have remarked that he constantly endeavoured to avail himself of the strong part of the Russian army, and to avoid exposing its weak part. Thus, as has been seen in the preceding volume in the battles of the Trebbia, he placed his infantry in such a manner that it had free scope for its bravery and its favourite way of fighting.—It was thus that at Novi, putting the Austrians upon the two wings where fighting was to be attended with manœuvring, which perhaps the Russians would have ill executed, he placed the latter in the centre, where the attack was so be simply in front, but where it was of such a nature, that however good the Austrian army is, it perhaps would not have been equal to it. It was thus that in the valley of Mutten, in place of employing in his defence, *demonstrations*, *tirailleurs*, and detached parties, as the French did in their attack, Suworow made his troops fight in a body and with the bayonet, and thus extricated himself from one of the worst situations in which any General ever found himself.’

The victory of the 2d of October resembled those of Pyrrhus; the success had been too limited, and the loss too great, to secure the purposes which the Royal commander had hoped to have gained by it. One attempt more it was his intention to have made: but he was prevented by the obstinacy of the Russians, which converted an affair of posts into a general engagement, terminating not very favourably. Fresh reinforcements had added to the power of the enemy, so that nothing could be hoped from another action; and it became necessary to give attention to those humiliating but unavoidable steps which were afterward adopted. The grounds of these measures will be best learned from a perusal of the representations submitted to the Commander in Chief by the Lieutenant-Generals, which stated as follows:

" That the five great actions which the army had fought since its disembarkation, had occasioned a diminution of its numbers, in killed, wounded, taken, or sick, to the amount of 9 or 10,000 men; and that *that* loss could not be quickly repaired, while the enemy, although having experienced a greater one, were become and would be daily more and more numerous—That the advanced period of the season, and the unheard of succession of storms and rains which had taken place for the three preceding weeks, had rendered the roads impracticable and had worn out the soldiers with fatigue, obliged as they were to be continually on the alert in bad and too extended cantonment.—That the same adverse season had for more than a fortnight impeded the navigation of the Zuyder Zee, and that since the 10th of September no vessel had been able to co-operate with them on the coast which flanked their right—That notwithstanding the advantage of canals, it had never been possible to give above two days bread, and seldom so much to the soldiers in advance—That this mode of conveyance existed no longer, now that they were beyond Alkmaar, the enemy having carried off all the boats, and those of which they had hitherto made use not being able to enter into the canals, which are much narrower than on the other side of Alkmaar; and that if the army continued to advance, there was no probability that they would be able to procure a sufficient number of carriages to bring up the supplies—That the position which they occupied offered no natural advantage, and was not susceptible of improvement by art, it being no other than a line of open cantonments, in which the troops having no obstacle or point of support to oppose to the enemy, were obliged to be constantly on the alert; and that a great part of them had been for four days under arms among the Sand-hills, exposed to continual rain—That supposing they succeeded in forcing the position of Beverwick, they could not continue in it, as they possessed no certain means of conveyance for the provisions, while they would have in front the French army become more formidable, and the greatest part of the Batavian troops on the left flank and on the rear—That the two great bases on which the plan of this expedition had rested, were, 1st, the expectation of a general insurrection of the Dutch people as soon as they should see a considerable corps ready to support them; and the 2d, that the French, vigorously attacked upon the most vulnerable parts of their frontiers, could not, or would not think of defending points more distant and less important.—The first of these expectations had entirely failed, no insurrection having taken place in the country which was the theatre of operations, nor in those parts in sight of which the English navy had appeared, nor in the more distant provinces which the French had left for a long time destitute of troops. The second had been no better realised; the inactivity of the Imperial army in Switzerland and in Germany, having permitted the French to devote to the defence of Holland forces so considerable, that there could be no reasonable hope of being able to overcome, or even in the end to withstand them."

The diplomatic manœuvres being performed, the well known treaty ratified, and the British troops and their allies being safely on board their ships, on their return home, the author lays aside the character of an historian, and in his last chapter assumes (as we have before remarked) the functions of an apologist. He first considers the objections made to the point which was chosen for landing, and the part of the country selected to be the theatre of war;—he next treats of the several places which have been represented as preferable, namely Zealand, the islands belonging to the province of Holland, the provinces of Friesland and Groningen, and states the reasons for not adopting them;—and he then discusses the subject of naval expeditions, maintaining that from their nature they are more liable to fail than likely to succeed, and that this has been the fate of many among those which have been most ably conducted, as that of Pyrrhus in proceeding from Epirus to Tarentum, that of Louis XI. in the crusade of 1249, that of Charles V. against Algiers, and lastly that of the "invincible armada." He extols the wise and manly conduct of the Duke of York, in the difficult circumstances to which he was reduced; classes him among Generals of the first order; and consoles him by observing that the greatest commanders have experienced similar disasters,—of which Amilcar in Sicily and General Melas in Lombardy are examples.

The reasonings and deductions of this zealous and ingenious advocate may reconcile us to the failure of the expedition: but, in the degree in which they account for the unfortunate catastrophe, they seem to us to impeach the propriety of the measure in the first instance, and to lead demonstrably to the following conclusion;—that, without the certainty either of a general insurrection in our favour at the moment when we landed, or that France would send no supplies to their own forces, the expedition, considering its force, and the want of the co-operation of Prussia, was a pure game at hazard. It has been always rumoured that this was the uniform and decided opinion of the much lamented officer, under whom it auspiciously commenced.

We shall now present to our readers the author's observations on the importance of the surrender of the Dutch fleet:

> ' Four signal victories, each of which would have been sufficient to throw a splendour upon any preceding war and perhaps to fix its result, had so habituated the English to naval triumphs, and had impressed upon them so great an idea of their superiority at sea, that however brilliant it was to have for the first time forced the passage of the Texel, however advantageous and unexampled it was to have, without the loss of a man, taken from the enemy thirty ships of war, they no longer felt disposed to estimate these advantages according to their full value. Still they were evident in the very first instance, when, the French having succeeded in bringing into Brest the Spanish fleet, the English saw their superiority in the channel encreased by the removal of the necessity of keeping a powerful fleet in the North Seas, which at the same time that it diminished the public expence added to the security of the eastern coast of Great Britain. The full value of these advantages was however felt —when the French, victorious on all sides upon the continent, proclaimed their intention of re-appearing on the Ocean and of reviving their plans of invasion ;—and when the Batavian government, whose servility to that of France had increased, used every effort to recreate a navy.—It was felt when the changes which took place in the politics of the north afforded hopes to France, that a maritime confederacy was on the eve of being formed against England, and when in consequence of the difference with Denmark the whole North Sea fleet proceeded to the Sound. These were circumstances which pointed out very decidedly how important the weight was which had been thrown into the scale of the English navy, when the Batavian Government was deprived of a greater number of ships than she had the means of rebuilding, and a greater number of sailors than she could procure in the space of several years. To this event must undoubtedly be ascribed the possibility of leaving without danger the mouth of the Texel unguarded, of silencing in a very few days the pretensions of Denmark, and of maintaining in the channel the superiority over France and Spain, without affecting the power or diminishing the glory which the British navy claimed so decisively in the Mediterranean and the eastern and western hemisphere.'

We are as ready as any persons can be to state these advantages, in all their extent: but let us not be told that the expedition *only failed in part:* the remarks urged in support of this paradox are disgraceful to the advocate, and insulting to the understandings of those to whom they are addressed. Suppose that a man sues in law for the fee simple of a valuable farm, and that the standing crop of one field is made over to him, while the suit goes against him;—exactly similar to the gains of such a man, was our success in Holland; and in the same sense in which he succeeds in part, have we succeeded in part. In fact, considering what the object was, and its incalculable importance, the failure was as complete as it was lamentable; and the capture of the Dutch fleet is to be considered only as an alleviating circumstance. The valour of our troops secured us from the addition of disgrace to the mortification of defeat; and a proper use of adversity may intitle us to future success.

This volume is illustrated by several large and (apparently) valuable maps, and is terminated by a copious appendix, containing official papers and documents, letters from the Commander in Chief, lists of killed and wounded, &c. &c.

We have now reached the close of this very elaborate and extensive work; which details the particulars of a struggle that has scarcely a parallel in the annals of the world. Having adverted to the faults of the history, we do not hesitate to conclude by recommending it, in the strongest manner, to those who seek instruction rather than amusement; though much of the latter is also to be found in its pages. We suppose that it was principally designed to meet the eyes of professional men: but the politician must not disregard it, since it uniformly connects the feats of war with the aims and views of the contending powers;—a part of his design to which the writer has paid great attention, and in which his merits are very considerable. Had he less indulged the spirit of party, and had he checked the rancour called forth (probably) by the recollections of great personal injustice, he might in many respects have stood a comparison with those illustrious historians, whose example he would in that case have followed. The feelings of the *Gentilhomme François*, and the sentiments of a gallant Chevalier, give the ton in our fashionable circles: but in the court of the Muses, where the simplicity of the classical ages has ever been principally in vogue, they appear more than semi-barbarous. The historian who would leave behind him a durable monument, to command the respect of future ages, must skake off all predilections in favour of men and of measures; and, leaving these to posterity,—a more able and much fairer judge,—must confine himself to report the views, the plans, and the deeds of the actors in his scenes, with the effects which they have produced. He must place himself on an eminence beyond the reach of infection from the passions of his own times, if he be ambitious of appearing to advantage in distant periods,—if he would make his work a Κτημα ες αει· This was the course by which Thucydides and Polybius, Davila and de Thou, attained the pinnacle of historical fame.

Art. VI. *An Historical and Practical Essay on the Culture and Commerce of Tobacco.* By William Tatham. 8vo. pp. 330. 6s. Boards. Vernor and Hood. 1800.

Partial as we old fellows may be supposed to be to the

> "Blest leaf, whose aromatic gales dispense
> To templars modesty, to *critics* sense;"

and indebted as we may frequently have been to its tranquillizing influence, for the calm discharge of the duties of our irritating profession, we were rather surprised at seeing it made the subject of a handsome octavo volume. We received the work, however, with as much respect as Uncle Toby and Mr. Shandy would have manifested towards it; and we beg to return our best thanks to Mr. Tatham for the singular attention which he has bestowed on our favourite plant. Though he has not produced a sprightly essay, rivalling in wit the celebrated poems in praise of *A Pipe of Tobacco*, he has presented us with an instructive publication; in which are detailed the particulars of the history of this vegetable, its cultivation, and the several laws by which its commerce has been regulated. He offers the fruits of observation and experience; and in addition to his own remarks, made during a long residence in the interior parts of America, he subjoins a variety of extracts from public documents existing on both sides of the Atlantic. To the cultivator of this plant, to the merchant, and to the man of science, the volume will be acceptable; and, if Mr. T. should be accused of some prolixity, he will still be allowed the merit of having spared no pains in the discussion of his subject.—As to the botanical name of tobacco, *Nicotiana*, he informs us, in his preface, that it took its origin from the person who first introduced this plant into France; who was *Jean Nicot*, master of requests, ambassador from Francis II. to Sebastian King of Portugal.

The work is divided into six parts: the *first* containing a full account of the *culture of Tobacco*, including the whole process, from the choice of the ground and the sowing of the seed, to the gathering in of the crop. The *second* part describes the *manner of housing, curing, and vending Tobacco in Virginia*, with an account of the tobacco-house, of the preparations for curing the plant, of bringing it into case or condition, of stowing in bulk, of stemming, of prizing *, of packing the hogshead, of cooperage, and of conveyance to market. The *third* part relates to the *warehouse and inspection*, in which is detailed a description of the office of inspector of tobacco in the public warehouses in Virginia;—a situation, we are informed, of high trust and importance, constituted by legislative authority, and which, 'to the great credit of the institution, has scarcely produced an instance of corruption;'—of opening and breaking the hogshead for inspection, and of passing and burning, &c. &c. Here it is remarked that

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* *Prizing* is a technical term, which may be defined to be the act of pressing or squeezing the article into its package, by means of certain levers, screws, or other mechanical powers, so that its size may be reduced in stowage, and the air so pressed out of it as to render it less liable to accident and exterior injury.

> 'If the leaf appears to be well cured, and put up in merchantable order and condition, they generally *pass* the tobacco immediately on the spot. If the case is doubtful, they retire to the inspectors' room to deliberate; and if the tobacco plants are either the product of suckers, of indifferent quality, or put up in bad order, they condemn the whole hogshead. In this last case it is burnt; and although it is thus a total loss to the proprietor, and has by custom become a kind of perquisite to the warehouse attendants, yet so surprizingly has this inquisition of traffic been managed, so prudently has the authority been exercised, and so much are mankind to be reconciled to habitual losses, that I scarcely recollect a murmur against the inspectors, although I have lived several years on the premises adjoining to the tobacco kilns, where, perhaps, a thousand hogsheads have been burnt in my presence.'

Mr T. then proceeds to treat of the warehouse entry, and tobacco-note; and the attention paid to the cultivation and curing of this *sacred* plant, as he in one place calls it, will be seen by the following extract, which is necessary to illustrate this part of the subject:

> 'The method of book-keeping in these warehouses is necessarily specific, and suited to the occasion: they have the crop book, the transfer book, and some others; and their forms are in some instances under legal regulations, and ruled in columns.
>
> 'The crop book is the most important concern: it contains a regular entry, in columns, of every single hogshead of *crop* tobacco which is passed in the warehouse to which it refers, from the begining to the end of the year; and a single line for each hogshead respectively, when written transversely through these columns, specifies the planter's mark and number, the date when such hogshead was passed and received into the public care, the name of the proprietor, the gross, tare, and nett, weight in pounds, the proportion of *stemmed* tobacco, of which the hogshead is composed, and leaves a broad margin for casual notes, references to the shipment of such hogshead, &c. From this entry a printed formal receipt or note is filled up, signed by the inspectors, and delivered to the proprietor; and it is by this note that all tobaccos are bought and sold, and circulated throughout the continent, in the same manner as bank notes, or current coin: the evidence of a deposit of so much in the public warehouses being there certified officially upon the face of the note, and the

the current value, or market price, receiving an universal tone from the specific credibility of the inspection where the deposit is made.

'This note is therefore a sufficient authority in the hands of the holder, to ask, demand, receive, sue for, and recover, the tobacco or its value, which the note specifies to have been deposited; and when the tobacco is taken away from the public warehouse, to be shipped by the merchant, this note is always returned to the inspector as his voucher for the delivery. In some instances, however, the greater crop masters, and those who are standing customers to particular merchants, decline the trouble and risk of taking out tobacco notes, and give a general or special order for the delivery of their crop; which is equally certain, as the inspectors never fail to make an immediate entry of the weights from the scale room.'

We are next presented with an account of the transfer of tobacco;—of shipping and the manifest;—of delivery;—of depredations of the crop-master, overseer, and *hands*; and of their respective shares, functions, and privileges. Here Mr. Tatham expresses his sentiments respecting negro slavery, which rather incline to favour than to suppress this degrading condition of humanity, in spite of his concluding period:

'The *hands* are most generally slaves belonging to the estate; and these in some instances are attached to it, and descend with the land to the next heir: in others they are considered personal property, according to the nature of the case, and the local regulations of the particular legislation; for each state in the union retains its distinct and separate *sovereign* rights, and the boasted supremacy which an Englishman is wont to ascribe to Congress is more qualified than it is generally conceived to be. The sons, however, of many planters work in the crop equally with the negroes, nor is there any material practical distinction observed between them. There are also white hirelings who cultivate tobacco, especially upon the footing of *croppers*, but these are more generally found among the Irish and German planters, than among the Virginians, and their fare is in common with the family. Confining the idea of *hands* to negroes who compose the majority, their master is compensated for their labours in the crop, by an allowance of their proportionate shares. In return for this he generally furnishes them with coarse clothing; a negro quarter residence, or a private house of their own, if they choose to build one out of his materials; as much land as they think proper to cultivate at leisure hours, rent free; a regular allowance of corn and salt provisions, or salted fish; the privilege of cultivating cotton, melons, potatoes, vegetables, flax, hops, fruits, &c.; of rearing as many ducks, geese, dunghill fowls, and turkies, as they can manage: in some instances this indulgence is extended to a small stock of swine; and I have known many slaves who kept their own horses and lived comfortably and respectably upon the surplus of their time.

'It is true, indeed, that the policy of the law has invested the master with an absolute authority to tyrannize; but this is rarely exercised, and especially since the American revolution. There are, however, some whose avarice is found to stimulate them to acts of severity and penury, but such are justly abhorred, and the perpetrators of those cowardly cruelties are seldom without the penalty of their demerit, in the conspicuous contempt of their neighbours. When it is considered, indeed, from how many social cares and duties negro slavery is exempted; that the master is obliged to provide for them in all events; that prudence often elevates their circumstances above the industrious labourer of Europe; that the mitigated condition of their present shackles, renders the name of the thing more horrible than the restraint, it may (though not to be voluntarily sought after) be a more enviable situation, in the eye of sound philosophy, than the pompous bondage of the pageant great. At any rate, I have known negroes who have reasoned against emancipation; and have been credibly informed of others who have petitioned to return to their former slavery! Happily for myself, I neither am, nor ever shall be, a slave-holder.'

To this third part is added a supplement, detailing the various methods of cultivating tobacco in America, according to the practice of former times.

The *fourth part* relates *the progress of the culture and commerce of Tobacco*, containing an account of the first knowlege of this plant. Mr. T. observes that

' It is generally understood that the tobacco plant of Virginia is a native production of that country; but whether it was found in a state of natural growth there, or a plant cultivated by the Indian natives (whose very origin is yet doubtful, and is daily becoming a matter of learned inquiry), is a point of which we are not informed, nor which ever can be farther elucidated than by the corroboration of historical facts and conjectures.

' I have been thirty years ago, and the greatest part of my time during that period, intimately acquainted with the interior parts of America; and have been much in the unsettled parts of the country, among those kinds of soil which are favourable to the culture of tobacco; but I do not recollect one single instance where I have met with tobacco growing wild in the woods, although I have often found a few spontaneous plants about the arable and trodden grounds of deserted habitations.

' This circumstance, as well as that of its being now, and having been, *cultivated* by the natives at the period of European discoveries, inclines towards a supposition that this plant is *not* a native of *North* America, but may possibly have found its way thither with the earliest migrations from some distant land. This might, indeed, have easily been the case from South America, by way of the Isthmus of Panama; and the foundation of the *Chactaw* and *Chickasaw* nations (whom we have reasons to consider as descendants from the *Tlascalians*, and to have migrated to the eastward of the river Mississippi, about the time of the Spanish conquest of Mexico by *Cortez*) seems to have afforded one fair opportunity for its dissemination.

'The first knowlege which the *English* may be supposed to have of this plant, seems to be deducible from the report of Sir John Hawkins in July 1565, who says, that "The Floridians, when they travel, have a kind of herb dried, which, with a cane and an earthen cup in the end, with fire and the dried herbs put together, do sucke thorow the cane the smoke thereof, which smoke satisfieth their hunger, and therewith they live foure or five dayes without meat or drinke, and this all the Frenchmen used for this purpose: yet do they holde opinion withall, that it causeth water and fleame to void from their stomacks." It is not clear to me, however, that this fumid preparation was tobacco, as Mr. Hakluyt has set it down; for the Indians smoke much of a bark which they scrape from the *killiconick*, an aromatic shrub, somewhat resembling the willow; and have also a preparation made with this and *sumach* leaves, or sometimes with the latter mixed with tobacco.'

The author then relates the primitive trade in this article, and the first legislative interposition in regulating its culture and commerce. So important was it formerly deemed, that, says Mr. T. 'the custom of passing tobacco current in payments had so far obtained ground, that the parson made no scruple of receiving this luxurious article for preaching; or the clerk for bawling out amen! and that the military officer thought it no way dishonourable to his profession to draw his pay in this specific article of traffic.' He afterward remarks:

'I find amongst the colonial records about this period, 1651, various provincial acts for making tobacco a legal tender from individual to individual, as well as in discharge of public obligations: such indeed was the smoking spirit of the times, that he who kept a public house was compelled to sell a dinner or a draught of beer for an equivalent in tobacco leaves; and his tavern rates were regulated by the courts of justice in pounds of tobacco, a bill of which was publicly exposed in his house for the information of his guests. It is easy to trace, from this foundation, the primitive cause for rendering tobacco the medium of value in the payment of costs of suit, parish and county dues, and many other public demands of a like nature, which continued to be appendages of the regal jurisdiction until the period of the American revolution.'

Mr. T. now descends from the antient to the modern history of the tobacco trade, particularizing the amount of the exports from the United States of America, from the year 1789 to 1798.

The *fifth part* respects the tobacco trade of Great Britain, which includes a great variety of particulars; and the *sixth part* details the culture and commerce of this plant, according to Mr. Anderson. An appendix treats on the increase and diminution of officers in the tobacco department of the customs of England, from the year 1782 to 1797.

Much as Mr. T. has collected on this subject, with the aid of extracts, supplements, and appendixes,—*necdum finitus Orestes.*—We are promised another *whiff.*

Art. VII. *The Divine Origin of Prophecy illustrated and defended*, in a Course of Sermons preached before the University of Oxford in the Year 1800, at the Lecture founded by John Bampton, M.A. Canon of Salisbury. By the Rev. George Richards, M.A. Vicar of Bampton, &c. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Rivingtons, &c.

As the professed object of the Bampton Lecture is "to confirm and establish the Christian faith," the present lecturer has chosen a subject which embraces the immediate design of the founder, and which opens a most spacious and instructive field to the inquiring mind. Prophecy is one of the two great pillars by which the truth of revealed religion is supported. Infidels have made a thousand attempts to subvert it, and learned believers have been equally strenuous in manifesting its unshaken stability. Mr. Richards is therefore obliged to traverse ground which has been repeatedly occupied: but, though novelty was out of his power, he has the merit of well arranging the different branches of his subject, and placing it in a clear point of view. If he be not critical, he is eloquent; and he 'brings forwards a series of such facts, and such observations grounded on facts, as appear peculiarly calculated to convince the serious and impartial inquirer, of the divine origin of one of the principal evidences by which our holy religion is confirmed.'

In the first of these nine sermons, the author, after some preliminary and explanatory remarks, exhibits his design in the following syllabus, or summary:

> 'It will be my object to direct the attention of the student in sacred literature to the discovery of the most striking characteristics, by which Prophecy is distinguished. Of these characteristics, some are indispensably requisite for the proper support of this testimony; and others, though not absolutely essential, are yet eminently important, and peculiarly calculated to strengthen our confidence in Revelation, and to effect in every candid mind an unalterable persuasion of its truth.
>
> 'There are various circumstances, which, in tracing Prophecies from their delivery to their completion, must come under the consideration of the Theological scholar. He renders himself acquainted with the general nature of Prophecy, the conduct and condition of the Prophets, the peculiarities of the several predictions, and the relative situations of the countries and persons concerned either in the delivery, or the accomplishment, together with a variety of important circumstances attending the several pretenders to divine inspiration in heathen nations. This enlarged knowledge of the several parts of the subject will present to his view a number of these characteristics, which, as I have already observed, contribute additional force to the argument, and place in a stronger point of view the divine nature of Jewish and Christian Prophecy. When it has been clearly demonstrated,

strated, that there is a co-incidence, which it is morally impossible that either chance or human ability could so invariably produce, between the predictions, which were uttered, and the events, in which they were fulfilled, though, in some instances, the reality of their divine origin does not, perhaps, become actually more certain; yet it is rendered, by a knowledge of these distinguishing marks, more striking, and more forcible in producing conviction in the mind. When a simple narrative of facts, establishing an allegation, has been submitted to the opinion of the Jurors, their judgment may be quickened, and their confidence strengthened, by remarks, judiciously made upon the long train of attending circumstances. What before was indisputable, then becomes more palpably certain.

'To this particular part of the subject I propose to limit my enquiries, and shall endeavour to prove,

'That the events foretold were frequently REMOTE, were described with MINUTENESS, were sometimes NOVEL, and were very NUMEROUS:

'That in the age of the respective Prophets, by whom they were predicted, they must have appeared often IMPROBABLE, and sometimes the exact REVERSE of what might have been reasonably EXPECTED:

'That, in numerous instances, the subjects of the predictions were peculiarly UNFAVOURABLE to the WORLDLY VIEWS of the Prophets, and the CONTRARY to those which, it is reasonable to suppose, IMPOSTORS would have chosen:

'That there is a PROPRIETY and CONSISTENCY in all the parts of Prophecy, constituting ONE GREAT AND HARMONIOUS SCHEME, which it seems morally impossible, that the Prophets could have imparted to it, if they had not been really inspired:

'That the general CONDUCT of the Prophets is INEXPLICABLE upon HUMAN PRINCIPLES, and can only be satisfactorily accounted for by an acknowledgement of their inspiration:

'And lastly, That from the MEANS which they employed, and the END which they pursued, from the circumstances attending the ORIGIN and TERMINATION of sacred Prophecy, and from the PRESENT SITUATION of a considerable portion of mankind, affording a SENSIBLE DEMONSTRATION of the prescience of the ancient Prophets, a strong presumptive argument may be derived in favour of their pretensions to a divine Revelation.'

In the subsequent discourses, Mr. Richards regularly pursues the plan here laid down. One lecture is wholly occupied in discussing the present astonishing condition of the Jewish people, which the preacher considers as a standing miracle illustrating the truth of revelation; and he concludes his observations with these pertinent inferences:

'The miraculous nature of the situation in which the Jews are placed, might perhaps be intended by the great Disposer of all human events, as an additional and most powerful incentive to faith. In order to aid the imperfections of his creatures, he may graciously have ordained, that the people, through whom his divine will has been revealed, should be distinguished, through their whole history, by remarkable deviations from the ordinary course of their fellow creatures. The ancient Prophets, in order to impress the Israelites with an entire conviction of their divine mission, frequently accompanied their solemn revelations with an act of preternatural power. In conformity with the same principle, it may benevolently be designed, that the modern Christian should be roused to a bolder confidence in his religion, by beholding, as it were, a continued miracle displayed on its behalf.

'The present astonishing condition of the Jews is further calculated to strengthen and illustrate the testimonies, recorded in the sacred annals, of a more immediate display of signs and mighty wonders in their favour during ancient times. Though we no longer view the water bursting from the rock, or the land enveloped at noon in the gloomy shades of night; yet we cannot but implicitly assent to the testimony of such supernatural appearances, when we see the whole Jewish nation now existing under circumstances inexplicable by human causes, and opposite to all the established principles of society.

'Again, it may be graciously intended for our benefit, that, in the present distressful state of the chosen people, we should behold an example of divine justice faithfully coinciding with our natural conceptions respecting the attributes of the Deity.'

Mr. Richards contends for the double meaning of some of the antient predictions; and his mode of accounting for their double sense, if it be not quite convincing, is at least ingenious:

'The double meanings, which many of the predictions convey, naturally result from the double office of the prophets. Employed upon two dispensations, it might naturally be supposed, that they would frequently intermingle them; that, though speaking more particularly upon the first, they would look forward to the second, and hold it constantly in view; that, glowing with the twofold conception, they would confound in one picture dissimilar images, which could never unite in a single person, or a single event; and would represent by one expression such circumstances common to both, as may not unreasonably be expected to occur in two œconomies, subservient the one to the other, both proceeding from the same God, and both conducing to the same end.'

An observation is made respecting the language of the antient prophets, in Serm. 6. which we wish that the preacher himself would review. He says that 'it is not vague,' and yet he observes that 'it is, in most instances *highly figurative*, and frequently *hyperbolical*.' (P. 225.)

The predictions of the Hebrew prophets are contrasted with the oracles and pretended prophecies of the idolatrous heathen; and while Mr. R. points out their respective characters, he requests the infidel to reflect on the different systems to which they severally belonged; remembering that the oracles of the heathen countenanced idolatry and the grossest vices under the idea of religion, but that the Jewish prophets inculcated the noblest sentiments of the Deity, established piety on the basis of divine truth, and exhorted to repentance and virtue.

These sermons are well written; they display the abilities of the author, and they are calculated to impress the reader.

Art. VIII. *New Picture of Paris.* By M. Mercier. Translated from the French. 2 Vols. 8vo. pp. 460. in each Vol. 16s. Boards. Symonds. 1800.

As the writings of Mercier abound with sprightly and original reflections, we expected that a translation of his late work (of which see an account, M. R. vol. 30. N. S. p. 572) would speedily appear on our table. The humane and liberal sentiments, also, which his former publications have displayed, must make readers in general desirous of learning his opinion of the French revolution, of the characters which have figured in it, of the interesting events with which it has been so fatally pregnant, and of its settled tendency respecting the French people and the world at large. Though a staunch republican, and a member of the Convention, Mercier was one of those who did not vote for the death of the King; and he speaks with the most pointed indignation and reprobation of the cruel tyranny of Robespierre, and of that series of horrible crimes which must ever remain a dreadful blot on the history of the revolution. His pages contain a variety of anecdotes, he had enjoyed many opportunities of ascertaining facts, and he appears to be an honest and amiable man; his statements, therefore, though perhaps not meriting implicit confidence, ought to be fairly contrasted with the accounts of other writers, and which bear a different character.

It was impossible for us, in our account of the French work, to quote even the titles of its numerous chapters; and this will not be expected from us now, in noticing the translation of it, which contains 276 sections, or five more than were given in that edition of the original which came under our examination. Suffice it to observe that Mercier's reflections extend to a vast variety of subjects; and that every English reader, who admires the exercise of thought, will be gratified, if not instructed, by these excursions of a superior intellect. In addition to the passages which we translated from the French, we shall select two or three from the volumes before us.

In allusion to his former work intitled *L'An* 2440, M. Mercier thus speaks of himself as plunged in the midst of the bloody revolutionary vortex:

'I, who under the reign of kings, and in the face of their thrones, built the vessel of a republic, but which did not sail in a sea of blood, and had not Septembrisers for pilots: I, who knew that it is to that cowardly swarm of writers, apologists of those horrors, that we owe the universal stupor of the nation prostrate before a band of ruffians, a sight more painful, more afflicting than the dissolution of worlds; overwhelmed by all that I have seen or heard, and dumb with horror, I have only been able to confide to paper the sensations which tortured me. But if indignation against crimes hitherto unknown in history, if the contempt which we feel for that despotism of the mob which it was their intention to restore, can inspire ability, I will paint them. I will describe those days in which anarchy paraded its vagabond standards, those days in which the philosopher was forced to repent what he had written; in which his silence was a subject of condemnation, because he was then afraid to emit new truths; those days which will never perish in the memory of man, and which they would willingly efface, as if history was not here below the first chastisement which eternal justice inflicts on guilty man.'

He thus describes his state of mind while the Convention was deliberating on the fate of the King:

'In great political affairs, refinement and dissimulation bring about events directly contrary to those which were intended. I was of opinion, that no cunning was necessary, and superior to fear, and firm in my principles, I separated myself on this occasion from the Girondines, whom I had always loved and esteemed. I voted against the appeal to the people, declaring myself with the same frankness against the pain of death.

'The examination of this question gave me a fever for eight and forty hours, and made volumes of reflections pass through my head. I fell sick; and having, I think, discovered the true point of view, I do not conceal my opinion, that those who voted differently have committed *a political blunder*. Probably they had not made the same exertions to come to the solution of this great problem, which nevertheless will be finally decided for posterity, by the pen of some future Tacitus. As for myself, I have done my duty as a man, and a legislator; and I do it still as a free and independent writer.'

We add the following circumstances, which we believe are not generally known, respecting the last moments of the unfortunate Louis XVI.

'Is it indeed the same individual, crowned and consecrated at Rheims, mounted on a raised flooring, surrounded by all the nobility kneeling at his feet, hailed by a thousand acclamations, adored almost [illegible] a god, whose look, and voice, and gesture, were as so many [illegible]; he who was surrounded with honours and enjoyments; in short, separated as it were from the rest of mankind, is it really the same man whom I see handled by four of the executioner's helpers, and his clothes stript off with violence; whose voice is drowned by the noise of the drum, tied to a plank, still struggling, and receiving, [illegible] ill *prepared, the stroke of the guillotine, that he has not his neck, but the* under *part of his head, and the jaw, horribly dissevered?*'——

'*It appears that Louis the XVIth had some hope even to the last moment; for it is certain, that he flew into a passion, and struggled with five or six of the executioners.* He spoke for some little time, and pretty loud.

'It is pretended that it was the player Dugazon, who, without the intervention of Santerre, ordered, as if it were the command of the general, the beating of the drums. Religion seems also to have assisted the King in this horrible passage from the throne to the scaffold, and the words of his confessor were sublime. "*Go, son of St. Louis, ascend to heaven!*'

The death of Condorcet is here stated to have been the consequence of hunger, and not of poison, to which it has hitherto been ascribed.

Protestant readers may wish to see this author's chapter intitled *Catholic Priests.* It is as follows:

'These innovators are the Protestants, who profess the religion of Enoch, Elias, Abraham, and Christ.

'Pure and simple homage rendered to the Supreme Being, the rewarder of virtue, and the avenger of crimes: songs of gratitude, in which they celebrate an active Providence which watches over the happiness of mankind; a course of practical morality, stript of the dryness of precepts; man continually placed in the presence of a heavenly judge, his own conscience; the duties of the citizen, and the public man, explained with conciseness; instruction mingled with harmonious music, elevating the hearts of the worshippers towards heaven, and relieving the mind from the attention which it has given to the teaching of the minister; this is what the catholic priest calls an impious innovation.

'To the probability of the rapid propagation of the worship of the Protestants, is joined the necessity of recurring to religious ideas, of putting aside whatever there is mysterious or unintelligible in dogmas, in order to preserve in all their purity those principles, those moral institutions which have no limits, inasmuch as they embrace every thing which can extirpate vice, prevent crimes, and encourage virtue.'

Though this translation of so interesting a work cannot fail to gratify the contemplative reader, he will perceive in it abundant errors of phraseology. In the preface, the words *Rêve s'il en fut jamais*, are translated 'a dream, if it has ever been so,' instead of *a dream if ever there was one;* and we have marked also the following objectionable expressions: the '[illegible] Mercier'—'*falsifying*'—'*factitious*'—'*cynism*'—'[illegible]'—'a *frightful* scene of most terrible calamities'—'[illegible] at Nismes,'—'*day-workmen*'—'consigned in a manuscript'—'[illegible]'—'we will never *compose* with tyrants'—'[illegible] law'—'odalisks'—'he *broke* Bonaparte's commission'—'wine not *comprehending* brandy'—'that of the [illegible] is spirituous, sharpened by brandy or spirits of wine, and sometimes impregnated with *dead oil* to give it body'—'*triumphant* *bant* arches'—' decently *violated,*' for veiled—' epidemy,'

: mistakes and novelties of expression, with innumerable
ıelegancies and Gallicisms, induce us to suspect that
sion has been executed by a foreigner; and we point
ıt for the purpose of inducing him to improve him-
a language which he appears to have studied with
r, but in which he has not yet attained correctness.

K. *Erratics:* By a Sailor; containing Rambles in Norfolk,
sewhere. In which are interspersed, some Observations on
te Attempts to revive the Cromwellian Observance of the
th. Together with some Hints on the present pernicious
ɔd of burying the Dead, and a Remedy proposed. 12mo.
ved. Ogilvy and Son. 1800.

GH presenting themselves as the flights of a lively and
ndering imagination, we find these *Erratics* abounding
rd observations and well-digested ideas. The author has,
made a strange mixture of the ludicrous and the serious;
changes his subject with great facility; and on whatso-
pic he employs himself, his vivacity is unabated. A
ɔrt extracts, we imagine, will not be unacceptable to
ders.

question of preference between a town life and a country
etermined in the following manner:

> r all, then, it seems, that in rustic tranquillity, remote from the
> turmoil of a crowded metropolis, far from both the splendors
> stenches of the town, true and genuine enjoyment is alone to
> l: so, indeed, says the resident '*in populous cities pent.*'—But
> e husbandman in his fields) I long to taste the joys of a Lon-
> , the endless and ever gay varieties of Bond-street bustle; I
> change these rows of oaks and elms for streets of brilliant
> and the constant clackings of that neighbouring mill for the
> and clatterings of coaches.—Perhaps, my old friend, the
> s, somewhere between the two; confinement in a town gives
> o country excursions; a seasonable rustication returns a man
> etter relish for town avocations; therefore, kind Heaven, I
> nt me the power to change one for the other as often as I

most prominent characteristics of the '*Norfolcians,*' the
observes, are habitual cleanliness, and a strong pecuii-
dialect. On the first he bestows the praise to which it is
intitled; and their provincial dialect he thus describes:

> is same Norfolk brogue offends principally from its *monotony*
> han from any twang or violent emphasis or accent: it has not
> northern *burr* of Durham, the *buzz* of *Zomerzetshire* and

the west, nor the slovenly slip-slop of Sussex; it has nothing of the w^d v, or the v^d w of the Cockney: it has less nerve than even the madrigal *sing song* of its neighbouring Suffolk; the *drone* of the Lancashire bagpipe is quick elastic *alerto* to it; it is all sameness, tameness; insipidity, frigidity—water-gruel without salt,—chalk-talk: *caput mortuum.*'

This account he has illustrated by a dialogue in 'Original vulgar Norfolk,' which he has accompanied by an *English translation.*

We shall now extract a part of the author's description of the approach to Norwich from Yarmouth:

'Dear Sir, 'Yarmouth, June, 1800.

'Your old friend T— and I are just returned from a very gratifying trip to the ancient *capital* of this country. *Norwich*, the industrious, commercial, and prosperous Norwich, is certainly a very lovely spot. I know of nothing in any country I have visited upon service or pleasure, that is superior to the view from its *Castle-hill*; that is, for the eye (I would be understood to mean) which can be delighted and contented with the picturesque of mild and tranquil scenery. Bolder prospects, awfully loaded with masses of monstrous mountains and rough ridges of rugged rocks, will better suit the taste that demands gigantic magnificence; but the soft and placid are to be found in Britain; sufficient theorists for experiment and speculation, unbigotted to ancient and stubborn habits, and yet too guarded for rash risk and incautious adventure.

'As we more nearly approached the city, we entered upon a still more decided track of obviously-excellent agriculture. The *Blofield Hundred* is a paragon of produce: the weedless crop here attests the hand of a master: the eye, although glutted with an immensity of produce, views everywhere the distinctness of œconomical distribution: strong in its propitious soil, the upright, vivid, clear, and perpendicular stalk, competent to sustain its promising weight and future wealth of ear, justifies the skill of the grower in the seasoning, the sowing, and the setting of his grain.

'If the father who spareth the rod has been stated to be the spoiler of his child, so the farmer who withholdeth the *hoe*, may be said to ruin his turnips: to see expert labourers, however, in that favourite and lucrative production of the fields of Norfolk, cutting away hundreds and leaving only distant units, would induce a spectator unaccustomed to the proceeding to dread an entire annihilation of that important crop: but fully adequate is the number of plants left to fill every space at the full size of their maturity, and then matchless in magnitude and exquisite in nutriment, they fatten to the most generous size some of the best bullocks Smithfield boasts, and feed some of the finest flavoured mutton Leadenhall exhibits.

'Some of the views in this division of the country are pleasingly attractive to a spectator that does not require the majestic or enormous: many parts to which we zig-zagged from the main road, are sufficiently embellished with wood and the slowly winding *Yare*, serpentizing through the valley with a useful, although not very numerous navigation of small craft, gives the solidity of satisfaction in the conviction of profit, added to the pleasure of contemplating its beauties. This valley has evident proofs of having formerly been covered by the sea: and here we had once more the pleasure to behold a profitable portion of *terra firma* rescued from the invasion and dominion of that element. *T*— and I, who have often admired, mile by mile, the beautiful and well-cultivated vale snatched by human skill and exertion from the Mediterranean Sea, between *Leghorn* and *Pisa;* who have beheld the abundant crop and stately tree flourishing on that spot where crept the coral, and gambolled the inhabitants of the deep, were enchanted by this little renewal of past gratification: there is, however, a very material difference, in one respect, between the two circumstances; for, whereas, in the Tuscan instance, the exclusion of the sea proceeded from the sublime ideas and the able operations of *man;* the departure of the waters in the Norfolk example, was the performance of *Nature*, as the *North Sea*, in the caprice of its evolutions withdrew itself. I ought, however, to add, what I write and you will read with conscious pride, that the valuable *Italian Level* above mentioned, was detached from the kingdom of Neptune, and transferred to the sickle of Ceres, by the owers and genius of an *Englishman!*'

A considerable portion of this little work relates to the ecc of Sunday newspapers, and the mode of interment which prevails in this country. The observations on these subjects are addressed to Lord B*******; though, on the former of the two, the author does not agree in opinion with the noble lord. He is an advocate for Sunday chearfulness, and thinks that 'the blessed *day of rest* should not be perverted to a day of *stupidity and gloom*, more depressing to the mind, and more destructive to the health, than the toils of the week are exhausting to the spirits and the body.'—In his remarks on sepulture, he takes notice of the horrid custom and 'villany of plundering the church-yards of their dead;' and also of 'the immense groupes of dead crowded together in the consecrated precincts of our temples of devotion,' open graves, &c. He praises the present sovereign of Denmark, for being the first monarch who has banished the dead from the capital of his dominions; and he strongly recommends burning, as being 'an anti-pestilential annihilation of mortal remains, from which many benefits would accrue.' To promote the introduction of such a practice, the author proposes the formation of a committee; and he suggests to Lord B. and Mr. W**********, that they, with other men of eminence who have turned their thoughts to the subject, should become members of such a committee. As a secretary, he recommends himself; and we have not the least doubt that he would fill the office ably and zealously.

The style of this little work is marked by an earnestness, sometimes a vehemence, of expression. There are likewise a few points against which we could object: but the author's good humour communicates itself to us, and we are little inclined to censure. Perhaps no pen can *run riot* within limits wholly unexceptionable: but such is the spirit of this performance, that, whether we approve or disapprove, we feel entertained.

It cannot escape observation, notwithstanding the author has clothed himself in a jacket and trowsers *, and in defiance of the irregularity (or rather total neglect) of arrangement in his matter, that his manner and language are not those of an inexperienced writer.

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* Respecting the denomination of a *Sailor*, by which he has designated himself, he observes in his *Introduction*; 'Having been many years in a department of the British navy, the writer is justified in calling himself a *Sailor*, although he does not affect to be a *Seaman*: his life has been more than commonly *Erratic*, as chance has made him a spectator of a great variety of services in different parts of the globe.'

Art. X. Dr. Campbell's *Lectures on Ecclesiastical History.*

[*Article concluded from p.* 273.]

With pleasure we resume the consideration of this judicious and instructive performance; the Second Volume of which introduces us to scenes nearer to our own times, and discusses questions which still divide the Christian world. As the topics here treated are more generally known, they may not be so curious as those which preceded them: but the author continues to be equally judicious and alike impartial.

Lecture xiv. the first of this volume, consists of reflections on the controversies of the primitive church; which meet with severe but not unmerited treatment. In the next discourse, Dr. C. draws a representation of those assemblies in antient times which were called *councils*, and to which the Christian world was wont so reverently to bow;—a representation that is somewhat ludicrous, but is not without the support of facts:

> 'Suppose that a single province in the empire had been visited with the pestilence, and that the distemper raged with so much violence, that few in that neighbourhood escaped; suppose further, that the ruling powers had, in their great wisdom, determined to summon, from all the provinces infected and uninfected, the whole medical tribe, physicians, surgeons, and apothecaries, sound and diseased indiscriminately, in order to consult together, and fix upon the most effectual method of extirpating the latent poison; would it have been difficult to foresee the consequences of a measure so extraordinary? The diseased in that assembly would quickly communicate the infection to the sound, till the whole convention, without exception, were in the same wretched plight; and when all should be dispersed and sent home again, they would return to their respective countries, breathing disease and death wherever they went; so that the malignant contagion which had, at first, afflicted only a small part, would, by such means, be rendered universal, and those who ought to have assisted in the cure of the people, would have proved the principal instruments of poisoning them. Exactly such a remedy were the decisions of councils, to the plague of wrangling, at that time not less terrible, if its consequences were duly weighed.'

The author then goes on to state, in this and the xvith lecture, the measures of policy by which spiritual Rome rose to power. This artful see never decided on the theological disputes, which were so frequent in the east, till her weight was sure of preponderating;—the ignorance prevalent in her communion secured her against troubles from new heresies;—to encourage appeals, she gave judgment uniformly in favour of the appellants;—and the heresies which she fostered did not, like those of the east, relate to fruitless and unintelligible questions, but had a tendency either to increase her power, or to fill her coffers. The following passage shews the spirit of the times:

'It was become a popular and plausible cloak, for the pride and ambition of churchmen, that they acted out of a principle of zeal for the dignity of the see with which they were entrusted, that is, said they, for the honour of the founder. This was thought to be of great weight, if the founder happened to be a saint in the calendar; of greater still, if he was, or (which is all one) if he was believed to have been, a scripture saint, or an evangelist; and greatest of all, if an apostle. They acted on the supposition, that they could not more effectually ingratiate themselves with their patron, though in heaven, than by exalting the church he had erected or endowed upon the earth, above the churches erected or endowed by others, and, consequently, in exalting him above his fellow saints. They, in this way, were disposed to excuse their interferences with one another, thinking it reasonable, that each should do his best for the saint to whom he was most indebted, and who, from being the founder, commonly became the tutelar saint of his diocese, or parish. And then, as to the idea they supposed those saints to entertain of the dignity of their respective churches, it was altogether secular, or suited to the apprehensions of mere men of the world. This dignity consisted not at all in the virtue and piety of the parishioners, but in the opulence and pre-eminencies of the clergy, in the extent and populousness of the parish or diocese, the magnificence of the churches, sacred utensils, and vestments, particularly the rank, the titles, the privileges, 'The council, besides the statutes enacted for reforming persons ecclesiastical, have judged it their duty to reform also secular persons of those abuses, which have been introduced against the immunities of the church, confident that princes will acquiesce, and cause due obedience to be rendered to the clergy. To this end they are admonished, before other things, to oblige their magistrates, delegates, and other temporal lords, to render their pastors that obedience, which those princes themselves are bound to perform to the sovereign pontiff; and for this purpose anew enforces whatever has been decreed by the sacred canons, and the imperial laws, in favour of ecclesiastical immunities, which ought to be observed by all under pain of anathema. The principal decrees are the following: that persons ecclesiastical, even though their clerical title should be doubtful, and though they themselves should consent, cannot, under any pretext, even that of public utility, be judged in a secular judicatory. Even in cases of notorious assassination, or other excepted cases, their prosecution must be preceded by a declaration of the bishop of the diocese. That in causes spiritual, matrimonial, those of heresy, tithes, &c. civil, criminal, mixed, belonging to the ecclesiastical court, as well over persons as over goods, tenths, &c. pertaining to the church, the temporal judge cannot intermeddle, notwithstanding any appeal, &c.; and those who, in such causes, shall recur to the secular power, shall be excommunicated, and deprived of the rights contended for. Secular men cannot constitute judges in causes ecclesiastical, and clergymen, who shall accept such offices from laymen, shall be suspended from orders, deprived of benefices, and incapacitated. The secular cannot command the ecclesiastical judge not to excommunicate without licence, or to revoke, or suspend, an excommunication fulminated. No king or emperour can make edicts, relating to causes or persons ecclesiastical, or intermeddle with their jurisdiction, or even with the inquisition, but are obliged to lend their arm to the ecclesiastical judges when called on. Rulers may not put their hand to the fruits of vacant benefices, under pretence of custody, protection, &c.; secular persons, who shall accept such offices, shall be excommunicated, and clergmen suspended and deprived. Ecclesiastics shall not be constrained to pay taxes, excise, &c. not even under the name of free gifts, or loans, either for patrimonial goods, or the goods of the church. The letters, sentences, and citations, of the ecclesiastic judges, especially of the court of Rome, shall, immediately on being exhibited, be, without exception, intimated and executed, &c. If there be any doubt that the letters are forged, or that tumults will arise, the bishop, as apostolic delegate, may order the needful precautions. Princes and magistrates shall not quarter their officers, &c. on the houses, or monasteries of ecclesiastics, nor draw thence ought for victuals, or passage money.'

We add some of Dr. Campbell's observations on these articles:

'They are ushered in as pious resolutions to be adopted by the council, for the reformation of princes and secular persons. One is naturally led to expect, that in such a writing, calculated purely to reform the great, their faults will, with Christian freedom, but in the spirit of meekness, be animadverted on; that one shall find a just censure on the pride, the luxury, the impiety, the extortion, the envy, the revenge, and the other vices which so often abound among those in high rank and authority; or that one shall see branded with proper severity, that unchristian ambition, which leads sovereigns so often, though fellow-christians in profession, to make war on one another, on the most trivial pretences, to the destruction of one moiety of their subjects, the oppression of the other, and dishonour of the christian name. But not a syllable of these. Was there nothing of this kind, then, among the powers of Europe? Never, perhaps, was there more. Yet this venerable body seemed to think, that there was nothing in their earthly potentates which would need correction, were they sufficiently submissive to their ghostly fathers, the bishops and the priests, that is, in effect, would they but resign to them their whole authority, and consent to become their humble slaves, a virtue, it seems, more successful, in the eyes of their reverences, than charity itself in covering sins.'

The XXIId Lecture concludes the author's account of the Council, and treats of the order of Cardinals, with the ceremonies observed at the election of a Pope.

The next division of this work states various measures which arose out of the policy of the church, designed to keep the people in ignorance and subjection.

Lecture XXIV. contains much curious matter relating to

'The books of the heretics, whose doctrine had been condemned by councils, were indeed often, for political reasons, prohibited by the emperors. Thus Constantine prohibited the books of Arius. Arcadius those of the Eunomians and Manichees. Theodosius those of Nestorius, and Martian the writings of the Eutychians. In Spain, king Ricaredo prohibited those of the Arians. Councils and bishops thought it sufficient to declare what books contained doctrine condemned or apocryphal. They proceeded no further, leaving it to the conscience of every one either to avoid them entirely, or to read them with a good intention. After the year 800, the Roman pontiffs, who had usurped the greater part of ecclesiastical government, expressly forbade men to read, nay, gave orders to burn the books whose authors they had condemned as guilty of heresy. Nevertheless, till the age of the reformation, the number of books actually prohibited was but small.'

The succeeding passage is not favourable to the loyalty of the Romish church:

'Indeed, for some ages past, no heresy has appeared so damnable in Italy to the ghostly fathers, to whom the revisal of books is intrusted, as that which ascribes any kind of authority to magistrates, independent of the pope: no doctrine so divine, as that which exalts the ecclesiastical authority above the civil, not only in spiritual matters, but in secular. Nay, the tenet on this subject, in highest vogue with the canonists, is that which stands in direct opposition to the apostle Paul's. The very pinnacle of orthodoxy with those gentlemen is, that the lawful commands of the civil magistrate do not bind the conscience; that our only motive to obedience here is prudence, from fear of the temporal punishment denounced by him; and that, if we have the address to elude his vigilance, and escape the punishment, our disobedience is no sin in the sight of God. It is impossible for any thing to be more flatly contradictory to the doctrine of all antiquity, particularly that of the great apostle, who commands us to be subject to those powers, not only for fear of their wrath, but for conscience sake. It was lucky for Paul, the apostle I mean, not the pope, that he had published his sentiments, on this subject, about 1500 years before that terrible expedient of the *index* was devised. He had, by this means, obtained an authority in the christian world, which Rome herself, though she may, where her influence is greatest, for a time, elude it, cannot totally destroy. Otherwise that missionary of Christ must have long ago had a place in the Index expurgatorius.'

We farther learn that

'Rome has obstructed the progress of knowledge, not only by suppressing altogether books not calculated to favour her views, but by reprinting works, which had too great a currency for them to suppress, mutilated and grossly adulterated. Those editions, when they came abroad, being for the most part neatly, many of them elegantly, printed, and well executed, were ignorantly copied by the printers of other countries, who knew not their defects.'—

'The consequence of the freedom, above related, which has been taken by the court of Rome with christian writers of the early ages, (for it luckily did not answer their purpose to meddle with the works of pagans) has rendered it, at this day, almost impossible to know the real sentiments of many old authors of great name, both ecclesiastics and historians: there being of several of them scarcely any edition extant at present, except those which have been so miserably garbled by the court of Rome, or, which amounts to the same thing, editions copied from those which they had vitiated by their interpolations and corrections.'

To shew the fair dealing of this church, we transcribe a decree of Pope Clement VIII. as quoted by Dr. Campbell: "*In libris catholicorum recentiorum, qui post annum christianæ salutis* 1515 *conscripti sint, si id quod corrigendum occurrit, paucis demptis aut additis emendari posse videatur, id correctores faciendum curent; sin minus, omnino deleatur.*"

In the present age, the importance of another of the claims of Rome, which we shall subjoin, will be readily estimated:

'The pope came at last to claim it as an exclusive privilege, to prohibit, and to license, not for Rome only, and the ecclesiastical state, but for all christendom, at least for all the countries wherein his authority is acknowledged, insisting, that what he prohibits, no prince whatever, even in his own dominions, dares license, and what he licenses, none dares prohibit. The first of these has been generally cal habits, and magnificently mounted on the finest horses, richly caparisoned, and adorned with gold and silver and jewels, did not a little contribute to excite the indignation of spectators against their spiritual lords, as bearing no resemblance to those meek, humble, and unassuming men, from whom they pretended to derive all their high powers and prerogatives.'

In the xxviiith and concluding discourse, the author discusses the progress of the Reformation, and the characters of its leaders.

The extracts which we have made from this work will, perhaps, speak more in its favour than our testimony. The civil history of Europe, down to the present moment, is most intimately connected with its ecclesiastical annals; and the volumes before us are admirably calculated to produce a taste for the study of the latter, and to convince the reader that the subject of them is by no means to be confined to the attention of Theologians. The impartial and philosophical manner in which the author has treated it is highly creditable to him: but it cannot be expected that he should be equally happy and successful on all the topics which come under his notice. There is an interesting view of the Council of Trent, in which neither Dr. Campbell nor any other writer (that we know) has yet considered it. This Council was assembled in consequence of loud, reiterated, and genetal clamours, at a time when the spirit of reform stalked abroad in all its prime vigour, and when catholic princes and states earnestly sought reformation; yet it does not correct a single substantial abuse, nor concede the slightest article:—nay, even the most odious prerogatives of the popes, which had been opposed and condemned at Pisa, Constance, and Basil, are either openly acknowleged, or tacitly admitted; and the doctrines styled Tramontane become the tenets of the Catholic church, as far as the authority of an ecumenical council, regularly summoned, and which had representatives from every catholic state, could render them such. Thus the ambitious See gained in prerogative what it lost in extent of jurisdiction. Whether this was wise, we do not decide; but the facts, such as we state them, and the causes of them,—with the deep sagacity which saw those causes,—the consummate skill with which they were seized and played off,—and the masterly address shewn throughout the whole business by the able ministers of the Papal court in this assembly,—cannot escape the attentive reader of Fra Paroli's incomparable history; which, though full of small inaccuracies, (all of which are rectified in the notes of his learned French translator, Pere Courayer,) never errs on great points.—On the subject of the Reformation, also, we find nothing very interesting in these

lectures.

ectures. We should not, however, state the qualified praise o which these parts are intitled, did we not regard the great mass of the work as deserving very high commendation.

It remains only to observe that, the points of ecclesiastical istory, so ably treated in these volumes, are few, compared with hose which still lie in reserve, to yield fame to those industrious students, who shall investigate them with diligence and discuss them with impartiality and a philosophic spirit. Should free inquiry again be encouraged among us, knowlege be once more in request, and truth be no longer regarded as dangerous, we shall hope to see this prolific region farther explored, by persons who, in temperament and in other qualifications, may be complimented as resembling the much lamented Principal Campbell.

Art. XI. *An Historical Description of Antient and Modern Rome;* also of the Works of Art, particularly in Architecture, Sculpture, and Painting. To which are added, a Tour through the Cities and Towns in the Environs of that Metropolis, and an Account of the Antiquities found at Gabia. Carefully collated with the best Authorities, by J. Salmon, Antiquary, late of Rome. Embellished with beautiful Engravings from Original Drawings. 8vo.

Mr. Salmon's outline seems much to resemble that of *Roma Antica e Moderna* by Venuti; and though it may have been formed from an actual survey, much trouble of research must have been saved to a subsequent author by the labours of such a precursor. We have long wondered that Venuti's publication, (in 4 vols.) which has been printed above 30 years, has not been translated into English; because it would have been a more certain guide to our countrymen sojourning at Rome, than the crude, hasty, and superficial remarks which occur in most books of travels. The Italian author has kept the antient and the modern parts separate, giving two volumes to each: but in the work before us they are incorporated.

As we must decline to follow Mr. S. closely, having so lately gone over the same ground with Mr. Lumisden, Miss Starke, and the President de Brosses, we shall stop only at such places as still merit peculiar attention on account of beautiful *immoveable* works of art in architecture, Fresco paintings, and Mosaic. Antient sculpture, and pictures by masters of the first class, will henceforth perhaps be vainly sought at Rome: since, though many pictures and some sculpture yet remain in the *churches*, there is too much probability that most of these edifices will be turned into stables, warehouses, workshops, or converted to other secular and ignoble purposes; in which case the architecture will be injured, and the sculpture and paintings removed or destroyed.

St. Peter's and the Vatican, the Ghigi, Borghese, Barberini, Farnese, and other principal palaces, with their contents, have been so often described, together with the churches and other public buildings, that it would be difficult for the most ingenious writer to diffuse an air of novelty over tales so often told: yet it must be allowed that Mr. Salmon has varied his narrative with such details as are not to be found in *every* book. Indeed, we can recollect no descriptive publication in modern times, in which the influence of sacred relics and the miraculous powers of holy men are related with so much gravity and reverence; except in the travels of Udal ap Rhys through Spain and Portugal, forty years ago; who, perhaps, having the fear of the Inquisition before his eyes, thought he could not act more safely for himself in Spain and Portugal, nor more fairly by the reporters of these supernatural accounts, than by hearing them with respect, and publishing them at home without a commentary, neither adding nor suppressing a single circumstance.—In giving the inventory of curious things in the church and monastery of St. Sylvester *in capite*, (vol. i. p. 33.) Mr. S. tells us that 'among the famous reliques here preserved, is an image of our Saviour, said to be the same as he himself sent to king Abagaro in Edessa: also, as is said, the head of St. John the Baptist, from which it has its name, "*in capite.*"

Describing the church of St. Peter *in Vinculis*, we are told;

'The present edifice was built about the year 442, by Eudoxia, wife of Theodosius Emperor of the East, who, having gone on a pilgrimage to visit the holy places of Jerusalem, was presented, by Giovinale, patriarch of that city, with the two chains with which St. Peter was loaded, when imprisoned by Herod, together with other reliques. One of these was sent to Rome by that empress, to her daughter Eudoxia, wife of Valentinian Emperor of the West, who gave it to St. Leo the Great. That pontiff comparing it with the other chain, by which St. Peter was secured in the Mamertine prison in Rome, they miraculously united, and formed but one chain, as is related by Sigebert in his chronicle.'—'On the high altar is kept the miraculous chain, and in the sacristy are many reliques, with ornaments of silver, among which are *the heads* of St. Taurino, St. Costantia, and St. Emerentiana, and *an arm* of St. Agnes.'

In the church and monastery of St. Dominic and St. Sixtus, we are informed, the nuns have 'a picture of Christ, said to be *painted by St. Luke.*'

In the Basilica of St. Laurence, without the walls, is the sepulchre of the titular saint; in which, says Mr. S.,

'The body of St. Stephen, or part of it, was deposited. Of the translation of it we have various accounts, of which the most probable is that of Bede. In 493, Eudoxia, wife of the Emperor Theodosius II. going to Jerusalem, the bishop presented her, among other reliques, with part of the body of St. Stephen, which she brought to Constantinople, and placed in a church she built there. But in 557, being transferred to Rome, Pelagius I. joined it with the body of St. Lawrence; and tradition asserts that the bones of themselves drew to the left to make room for St. Stephen's. Part of the gridiron is also said to be here preserved, together with a stone on which his body was placed, marked with his blood; the head of the martyrs St. Hippolitus and St. Roman; an arm of St. John, and one of St. Apollonia, a virgin and a martyr, with many other reliques.'—

'The Monastery of the church of the Immaculate Conception, in the Campus Martius, was built for the Basilian nuns, who came from Greece in 750, to avoid the persecutions of Constantine Copronimus, and brought with them, on camels, the body of St. Gregory Nazianzen, the head of St. Quirinus, bishop and martyr, some images of the blessed Virgin, and other reliques. When they passed a small church on this spot, dedicated to the blessed Virgin, the beasts stopped, and refused to go any farther; for which reason the sacred reliques were there deposited, and the monastery and a new church erected in honour of St. Gregory, in which his body was placed.'—

Vol. II.

'On the scite now occupied by the magnificent church of St. Agnes, was the lupanari, or brothel, to which it is supposed the virgin St. Agnes was conducted, by order of Sempronius, Prefect of Rome, for the purpose of violation; but she being assisted by an angel, the son of the same Prefect fell dead at her feet as he was going to ill-treat her. In compliance, however, with the fervent entreaties of the father, she prayed to God, and he was restored to life. To preserve the remembrance of this miracle, a small church was erected on the same spot, and made parochial.'—

'In the church of St. Mary *Degli Agonizzanti* is said to be preserved the band in which Christ was wrapped, and this is exposed yearly at Christmas.'—(P. 30.)

'The church of St. Mary *Della Consolazione*. Here was an image of the blessed Virgin painted on the wall of an old house in the public street. In 1470 this image was said to have dispensed favours and miracles to the people, who resorted to it with devotion; and with the money collected on the occasion this church was built, under the title of the Consolation.'—

'St. Paul *alle tre Fontane*. Here are three churches dedicated to that saint. The third of which is erected on the spot where St. Paul was beheaded, and in which are the three fountains said to have miraculously sprung up on the three spots his head moved to, after it was taken off.'—(P. 76.)

Basilica of St. Paul. 'The crucifix in one of the chapels, that was affixed to a pilaster in the cross aisle, since removed to this place, is said to have spoke to St. Brigit; and here was placed her statue, sculptured by Maderno.' p. 79. This circumstance is mentioned again, p. 165: 'The crucifix, in the next chapel, is held in great veneration, from a tradition that it spoke several times to St. Brigit, when she was praying before it.'

At p. 115, we are told that 'near the birth of Christ, a prodigious fountain of oil rose, which ran for a day towards the Tiber, as we read in various respectable authors, on the spot where the Basilica of St. Mary in Trastevere was afterwards built, and though not much noticed by the Gentiles, the Christians considered the spot as distinguished by God for the miraculous oil.'

'The church of St. James *Scossciacavalli*, took its name in the time of St. Helen, mother of Constantine, when that empress had conveyed from Palestine to Rome two remarkable stones, on one of which Abraham laid his son Isaac to sacrifice him to God, the other on which Christ was placed by the blessed Virgin when presented in the temple, and which she intended to place in St. Peter's; but the horses arriving on this spot, would not proceed any farther, though severely whipped and forced by the drivers; from which circumstance a church was erected here, and the stones placed in it, and from this it took its name.'

Many other similar passages, which we had marked, might be quoted. We have elsewhere prodigies performed by St.

Filippo Neri, by St. Peter's *chair*, by a *column* from the temple of Solomon, 'on which Christ leaned when preaching in the temple'; and various sacred relics preserved in the Vatican palace: such as 'the head of St. Laurence; part of the sponge held to the lips of Chriſt; one of the thorns he was crowned with; a piece of the cross; and a vestment of St. Prisca, who suffered martyrdom in the second century.'——Perhaps, however, even our most pious readers have had enough on the subject of these legendary prodigies:—yet we have nothing more *extraordinary* to offer from the work before us. If such a list of relics had been invented by a Calvinist, in order to ridicule and disgrace Roman Catholic credulity and superstition, he could not have done it more effectually. Such accounts may have been seriously read at Rome or in Spain before the Revolution, while the inhabitants revered whatever they supposed to have belonged to holy persons: but at no time would they escape ridicule in a country of heretics, like our own.

The catalogues of paintings and sculpture which Rome formerly possessed is, we believe, very ample and accurate: but, till the author comes to the plundered *Belvidere*, he seldom mentions her losses. In giving the inventory of the Vatican palace, indeed, after having mentioned the scarce head of *Brutus* the first Roman consul, and the statue of one of the twelve Camilli who saved Rome from fire in the time of the Republic, (both of bronze, with silver eyes,) Mr. S. tells us, in a note, that 'both these are now *removed* to Paris:'—a gentle word for *theft*.

The Villa Albani is described as if still subsisting, and not despoiled of all its inestimable treasures of antient arts; of which no more now remain than could be found in the palace of old king Priam at Troy.

Mr. Salmon appears not to have known that, while *removing* the celebrated *Taking down from the Cross* of Daniel de Voltana in the Church of *la Trinita de Monti*, by order of the French commissioners, some *brigands* of their nation were so eager to seize the brazen and copper cramps and nails by which the frame was fixed, and which was extremely ponderous, that it fell down, and that exquisite painting was rent in such a manner that not a single face or figure remained entire!

The St. Cecilia of Raphael at Bologna, having been painted on wood which was worm-eaten, and being ordered to be *removed* to Paris, was found on its arrival to be crushed, pulverized, and totally ruined!

The Vatican Library is amply described, without a single word concerning the books and MSS. lately *removed* to Paris: but we have a melancholy list of *removals* from the *Belvidere* gardens and Casino. This we shall give in the author's own words; and it will reflect no disgrace on the taste and judgment of the French commissioners, whatever ideas it may generate concerning the rapacity of their employers.

'The statues of Apollo, the group of the Laocoon, Antinous, the Torso, Hercules Commodus, Demosthenes, Trajan, Posidippus, Menander, Phocian, Cleopatra, Hygeia, Sextus Chæroneus, an Amazon, Venus, Adonis, Paris, Dioscobulus, Sardanapalus, Augustus, a statue said to be Cæsar, Tiberius, Meleager, the Nile, the Tiber, Ceres, Melpomene, Apollo, and the nine Muses; the busts of Antinous, Adrian, Jupiter Serapis, Comedy, Tragedy, the Ocean, Cato and Porcia, Menelaus, Minerva, the large vase of basaltes with masks, three candelabras, three altars, one with ornaments consecrated to Apollo, two Sphinxes, and two curule chairs, are now *removed* to Paris.'

Luckily, architecture, the Fresco paintings of Raphael, Giulio Romano, John d'Udine, Pierin del Vaga, and others; with basso-relievos of stucco, animals, arabesques, small ornamental figures in grotesque, festoons, landscapes, and Mosaic from designs of Raphael and other great masters; are *fixtures*;—and many churches, and some palaces, containing works of artists not to be found in Vasari, Passari, or Venuti, but mentioned by Mr. Salmon, may have hitherto, perhaps, escaped plunder by their obscurity.

In enumerating the busts and monuments of illustrious poets, painters, and musicians, placed and erected in the Pantheon, the author has omitted to mention Corelli, Sacchini, and Metastasio.

As Mr. S. has not reduced the Palm to English measures, most of his readers will find themselves in doubt, confusion, and uncertainty. Palms vary in different parts of Italy; and the Roman palm, which is equal to 8,779 English inches, has a fraction that is embarrassing to unscientific calculators.

The plates of this work, twenty-one in the first volume, and seventeen in the second, contain representations of the principal antient buildings, churches, &c. with a plan of Rome; which are well designed, and neatly engraven.

On the whole, the long residence of the author at Rome, once (as he justly calls it) 'the metropolis of empire, afterward of religion, and still of the arts,' must have enabled him to render his catalogues more copious than any that have appeared in our language; and (as we before observed) though dry lists of paintings and sculpture will afford little amusement or instruction to English readers who have never travelled, yet to those who have already been in Italy, these volumes will be useful in reminding them of what they have seen; and for young artists and dilettanti, when visiting Rome, they form an excellent *vade mecum*, and may save the expence of a *Cicerone*.

Art. XII. *Odes of Anacreon*, translated into English Verse. With Notes. By Thomas Moore, Esq. of the Middle Temple. 4to. pp. 280; and 3 Plates. 1l. 1s. Boards. Stockdale. 1800.

Having lately taken notice of a French version, modestly called an *Imitation* of the Odes of Anacreon *, we had occasion for making various remarks on former translations in different languages, which must not be repeated in our account of the present volume: but we have now to observe that, since the former article was written, we have found that all the knowlege concerning the life of the Teian bard, his writings, and translators, has been furnished to late editors by our grand archetype, Bayle; who read and thought for himself, neither taking nor giving any fact on trust. This patriarchal critic, this model of *Reviewers* †, is still the best pattern that we can follow. His doubting spirit, so offensive to pious readers, was not confined to religious subjects, but extended to all his researches; and it has gained for him, in secular matters, a weight and importance which careless investigators never obtain. Without being guilty of polemic rudeness, this diligent and sagacious inquirer has pointed out, in his notes to the article Anacreon, in his Dictionary, inaccuracies even in writers of the first eminence, concerning their mouths. It is very necessary to distinguish the original texture from the embroidery of those who quote."

We are glad of so strong a support as that of Bayle in totally disregarding all doubts that have been thrown on the authenticity of the Odes which pass under the name of Anacreon. It has been imagined, though by no high authority, that the supposed poems of the Teian bard are only *Anacreontics*, by various Greek imitators of his manner, collected into a body: but could all these imitations be so constantly in the same style and dialect, if composed at different times by different authors?

It is now time to pay our respects to Mr. Moore; whom we congratulate on his success in translating an author who requires somewhat more than rhymes and metre to transfuse his spirit into our language. Much learning and a wide extent of reading are also manifested in Mr. M.'s notes; which will convey considerable information to readers who are not deeply versed in scholia, commentaries, and classical anecdotes. It will perhaps be said that he is not equally happy in *all* his versions: but it would not be candid to expect this uniform excellence. The Grecian bard himself has not composed all his odes with equal felicity. Fawkes, in *Cupid benighted*, is perhaps superior to Mr. Moore in smoothness: but there is a force in the present translation, which will repay the mind for small offences against the ear. We perused some of the odes, indeed, with a small degree of disappointment, from the harshness of a few of the lines, and the use of unlyrical words. The Italian poetical words furnish but a small part of the general dictionary of the language; and Baretti somewhere says that, out of 40,000 terms, not more than 4 or 5000 are allowed to be lyrical. The mixture of Iambics with Trochaics, indiscriminately, has not a good effect on our ear, though it is authorized by Milton.—In a few of the odes at the commencement of the work, Mr. M. seems scarcely to have trained his Pegasus to the true Anacreontic *allure* or *rate*: but his winged courser becomes more vigorous and fleet, the farther he advances. In giving specimens, however, we shall transfer the office of eulogist to his own Muse. The first example of characteristic ease and grace shall be Bacchanalian, and according to the translator's arrangement, which follows that of the Vatican MS.

ODE XXI.

' Observe when mother earth is dry,
She drinks the droppings of the sky;
And then the dewy cordial gives
To ev'ry thirsty plant that lives.
The vapours, which at evening weep,
Are beverage to the swelling deep;

And when the rosy sun appears,
He drinks the ocean's misty tears.
The moon too quaffs her paly stream
Of lustre, from the solar beam—
Then, hence with all your sober thinking!
Since Nature's holy law is drinking;
I'll make the laws of nature mine,
And pledge the universe in wine!'

Rousseau says that drunkenness is the most generous of all the vices: but he allows (and who can deny?) that it *is a vice.*

The next ode which we shall quote is full of juvenile fancies that have been often imitated; as, indeed, have been all the poems of Anacreon that have come down to us:

'ODE XXII.

'The Phrygian rock, that braves the storm,
Was once a weeping matron's form—
And Progne, hapless, frantic maid,
Is now a swallow in the shade.
Oh! that a mirror's form were mine,
To sparkle with that smile divine;
And like my heart I then should be,
Reflecting thee, and only thee!
Or were I, love, the robe which flows

Affection now has fled from earth,
Nor fire of genius, light of birth,
Nor heavenly virtue can beguile
From beauty's cheek one favouring smile.
Gold is the woman's only theme,
Gold is the woman's only dream.
Oh! never be that wretch forgiven—
Forgive him not, indignant heaven!
Whose grovelling eyes could first adore,
Whose heart could pant for sordid ore.
Since that devoted thirst began,
Man has forgot to feel for man;
The pulse of social life is dead,
And all it's fonder feelings fled!
War too has sullied Nature's charms,
For gold provokes the world to arms!
And oh! the worst of all it's art,
I feel it breaks the lover's heart!'

Mr. Moore's illustrations in the notes are in general in-
esting and lively, and (as we have already remarked) bespeak
gence, learning, and good taste. The imitations of Ana-
on, which he inserts in various languages, are always fol-
ed by elegant translations. Of this kind is the subsequent
nslation of a Greek Anacreontic by Menage, "enforcing
necessity of loving," and of which the text is taken from the
ond line of the preceding ode:

' *To* Peter Daniel Huet.

' Thou! of tuneful bards the first,
Thou! by all the graces nurst.
Friend! each other friend above,
Come with me and learn to love.
Loving is a simple lore,
Graver men have learn'd before;
Nay—the boast of former ages,
Wisest of the wisest sages,
Sophroniscus' prudent son,
Was by love's illusion won—
Oh! how heavy life would move,
If we knew not how to love!
Love's a whetstone to the mind—
Thus 'tis pointed, thus refin'd.
When the soul dejected lies,
Love can waft it to the skies;
When in languor sleeps the heart,
Love can wake it with his dart;
When the mind is dull and dark,
Love can light it with his spark!
Come, oh! come then—let us haste
All the bliss of love to taste;

Let us love both night and day,
Let us love our lives away!
And when hearts, from loving free,
(If indeed such hearts there be),
Frown upon our gentle flame,
And the sweet delusion blame;
This shall be my only curse,
(Could I—could I wish them worse?)
May they ne'er the rapture prove,
Of the smile from lips we love!'

We shall now *take a dip* for one other example of Mr. Moore's poetical spirit and powers of versification;—and, fortunately, Anacreon's exquisite address to the Rose, as beautiful as the subject on which it is written, has presented itself for insertion:

' ODE LV.

' While we invoke the wreathed spring,
Resplendent Rose! to thee we'll sing—
Resplendent Rose, the flower of flowers,
Whose breath perfumes Olympus' bowers;
Whose virgin blush, of chasten'd dye,
Enchants so much our mortal eye.
When pleasure's bloomy season glows,
The Graces love to twine the rose;

Through Cytherea's form it glows,
And mingles with the living snows.
The rose distils a healing balm,
The beating pulse of pain to calm;
Preserves the cold, inurned clay;
And mocks the vestige of decay.
And when at length, in pale decline,
Its florid beauties fade and pine,
Sweet as in youth, it's balmy breath
Diffuses odour even in death!
Oh! whence could such a plant have sprung?
Attend—for thus the tale is sung.
When, humid from the silv'ry stream,
Effusing beauty's warmest beam,
Venus appear'd, in flushing hues,
Mellow'd by ocean's briny dews—
When, in the starry courts above,
The pregnant brain of mighty Jove
Disclos'd the nymph of azure glance—
The nymph who shakes the martial lance!
Then, then, in strange eventful hour,
The earth produc'd an infant flower,
Which sprung, with blushing tinctures drest,
And wanton'd o'er its parent's breast.
The gods beheld this brilliant birth,
And hail'd the Rose—the boon of earth!
With nectar-drops, a ruby tide,
The sweetly-orient buds they dyed,
And bade them bloom, the flowers divine
Of him who sheds the teeming vine;
And bade them, on the spangled thorn
Expand their bosoms to the morn!'

taking our leave of this work, we have only farther to
e that it is printed on paper and with types of great
; and that it is in all respects an elegant and pleasing
ation.

XIII. *A Treatise on Plane and Spherical Trigonometry*, with
Introduction explaining the Nature and Use of Logarithms,
ted to the Use of Students in Philosophy. By the Rev. S.
ce, A.M. F.R.S. Plumian Professor of Astronomy and
erimental Philosophy, Cambridge. 8vo. 4s. sewed. Win-
e. 1800,

first part of this volume contains, as the title page
ets forth, an explanation of Logarithms, the use of which
wn by a great variety of examples; and the second treats
ne Trigonomety. In Art. 56. the definition of Trigono-
is curious, but not very precise, nor very convincing.

The difficulty of the negative cosines is escaped in p. 49. by referring to an article in the Algebra, which is far from being satisfactory. In the same page, the Professor asserts that an arc of 90° has neither a tangent nor a secant; and in a long note he exposes the paradoxes and absurdities into which the contrary opinion leads us. Now although we do not pretend to have any idea of an infinite quantity, yet in a certain sense the expressions *infinitely great* and *infinitely small* are sufficiently intelligible; they are what Wallis and Leibnitz styled *passables*; and we may as safely admit into mathematical calculation, the sign for an infinite quantity, viz. $\frac{1}{0}$ or ∞, as we admit $a\sqrt{-1}$, or $a^x\sqrt{-1}$: but it is strange that the author should deny the existence of the secant and tangent of 90°, yet admit the existence of a cosine of 90°. What is a cosine? that part of the diameter which is intercepted between the sine and the centre; whence, in an arc of 90°, the extremity of the sine is in the centre; and consequently, according to the definition of terms, (to use the author's own reasoning,) there is no cosine to that arc, there being no distance:—so that, if it be denied that an arc of 90° has a secant, it is a most strict consequence that it has no cosine:—but give the cosine a *mathematical* existence, call it *o*, then the corresponding designation of the secant is $\frac{1^2}{0}$ or ∞, and no error can arise in mathematical reasoning, from thus representing the tangent or secant, since ∞ is as proper a sign for the tangent of 90° as *o* is for the cosine.

The proposition in spherics, which is introduced to shew the absurdity of admitting that an arc of 90° has a tangent, is this;— : radius : cosine of the angle at the base :: tangent of the hypothenuse : tangent of base. Now, says the author, when the base is 90°, the hypothenuse is 90°; therefore, their tangents are equal; and consequently radius = cosine of the angle at the base, whatever that angle may be. This proposition is deduced by aid of the complementary triangle: but if we make the base 90°, there is no such triangle;—all that we can do, therefore, is to take the base $\angle$ 90° and to find what the proportion becomes in the limiting state of the complementary triangle: now the proportion in this latter triangle is : sine side : rad' :: tangent side : tangent of angle opposite; or, in the other triangle, : the cosine of the angle at the base : rad' :: cot. hypothenuse : cot. base; or, : cosine angle base : rad' :: tang. base : tang. hypothenuse. If B and H be base and

hypothe

hypothenuse, $\frac{\text{cosine angle base}}{\text{rad.}}=\frac{\text{T. B}}{\text{T. H}}=\frac{\text{cot. (quad}^t\text{—B)}}{\text{cot. (quad}^t\text{—H)}}$: but, in the ultimate state of the complementary triangle, $\frac{\text{T. B}}{\text{T.H}}$ or $\frac{\text{Cot. (Q—B)}}{\text{Cot. (Q—H)}}$ is not=to 1 any more than $\frac{x^2-a^2}{x-a}$ or $\frac{x^3-a^3}{x-a}$ $=\frac{o}{o}$ is = to 1 when $x=a$.

To use the mathematical phrase, the limiting ratio of $\frac{\text{T. B}}{\text{T.H}}$ is not a ratio of equality.

In page 95, Mr. Vince again uses fallacious arguments to prove that the tangent of 90 should not be expressed by a symbol: for to deny that the arc of 90° has a tangent, when examined, is to deny that it can be properly represented by a mathematical symbol. His reasoning is this; tangent (45°+Arc) =tang. (45°—Arc)+2 tang. 2 Arc; hence, if Arc=45°, tang. (90°)=2 tang. (90°): an absurdity.—Now it is to be observed that this proposition is thus deduced; tang. (45°+Arc) $=\frac{\text{T.}45^\circ+\text{T. Arc(A)}}{1-\text{T. }45^\circ\text{ T. Arc}}$, and tang. (45°—Arc) $=\frac{\text{T.}45^\circ-\text{T. Arc(A)}}{1+\text{T.}45^\circ\text{.T. Arc}}$ and (if t represent tang. of arc)

Tangent (45°+A)—tangent (45°—A) $=\frac{1+t}{1-t}\ \frac{1-t}{1+t}$ $=\frac{4t}{1-t^2}=$ 2 tang. (2 A) : but if A=45°, then it can never be proved that tangent 45°—A $=\frac{1-t}{1+t}$;—and it is surely very strange to admit into calculation the tangent of (45°—45°), and to exclude thence the tangent of 90°. The proposition, then, tang. (45°+A)=tang. (45°—A)+2 tang. 2 A, can *never* be proved, except A differs, no matter by how small a quantity, from 45°. Let A=45°—z; then the above proposition becomes tang. (90—z)=tang. (z)+2 tang. (90—2z): which is a true equation, however small z may be: but, when z is put accurately *o*, then the above proposition is false, and all the mathematicians in the world can never prove it.

The proposition concerning the tangent of the sum and difference of two arcs is proved by two different processes; and it may perhaps be proper to shew the student how truth may be obtained by various methods:—science, indeed, is not yet so perfect that one method should be pursued to the exclusion of all others:—but we wish that, in this treatise, the Algebraical and Geometrical methods had not been mixed. It is not of very great consequence which is followed: but let the student follow one only, if he wishes for perspicuity, connection, and system. Truth may be acquired by trial, induction, or analogy: but it is only truth, strictly and logically deduced, that constitutes science.

In the appendix to the Plane Trigonometry, Professor Vince gives the method of expressing the sine and cosine of arcs by the aid of exponential quantities. He likewise inserts the formula invented by Euler; namely, that, if z be an arc, then $\frac{z}{2} = \sin. z - \frac{1}{2}\sin. 2z + \frac{1}{3}\sin. 3z - \frac{1}{4}\sin. 4z +$, &c.

Part III. as we may call it, of this treatise, relates to Spherical Trigonometry. Propositions 8, 9, & 10. appear to us to want demonstration; and we hope, for the credit of our understanding, that the proofs of them are not very easy according to the method pointed out by the author:—we certainly do not perceive the truth of these propositions to be self-evident, nor do we think that their demonstration is obvious.

In these two parts of Plane and Spherical Trigonometry, the Professor has judiciously introduced a great variety of curious and useful theorems, and has shewn how to reduce them to a logarithmic computation. A great number of examples are likewise given: but we are sorry to see them announced in *astronomical* terms; because the present treatise is intended to be *merely trigonometrical*, and therefore the examples should belong neither to this nor to that science. The theorems should have been illustrated by examples made up of mere bones and skeleton; whereas, by putting them into astronomical language, they are clothed with flesh and muscle. Mr. Vince is too stedfastly attentive to the purposes of the practical Astronomer.

The work is closed by several propositions relative to the variations of spherical triangles, similar to those which Cotes has given in his *Estimatio Errorum in mixtâ Mathesi*.

We have without reserve stated what we deem to be the imperfections and errors of the present treatise; yet, were we required in a few words to give our judgment of its merits, we should have no hesitation in pronouncing it to be an useful and valuable publication.

The reader will find an account of Mr. Vince's *Principles of Astronomy* in our last volume, p. 239. and of his larger work intitled *A Complete System of Astronomy*, in our xxviith volume, p. 121. and the number for May last, p. 72.

ART. XIV. *New Observations concerning the Colours of thin Transparent Bodies*, shewing those Phænomena to be Inflections of Light, and that the Newtonian Fits of easy Transmission and Reflection derived from them have no existence, but fail equally in their Establishment and in their Application by Newton to account for the Colours of Natural Bodies. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

THE object of a former publication by this author, of which we gave an account in our last Review, page 279, &c. was to shew that the Newtonian Fits of easy Transmission and Reflection have no existence; and that the phænomena, which seem thence to be derived, are merely cases of Inflections:—this design is here again proposed. From the doctrine of the Fits of easy Transmission and Reflection, Newton had deduced an explanation of the colours of natural bodies: which doctrine and the deductions from it are controverted by our author, who thus clearly states Newton's opinion:

'This last hypothesis consists in ascribing to the rays of light certain properties, or dispositions, by which, from their first emission, and during their whole course of future propagation, they at certain intervals of their course are alternately disposed to be reflected or transmitted, if then arriving at the surface of any transparent, opake, or coloured body. The existence of these qualities of the rays he considers as discovered by direct experiment, and established unquestionably by the plain evidence of sense, in observations upon the phænomena of colours produced by thin plates of any transparent substance. By such a thin plate, of varying thickness, he conceived he saw one and the same sort of rays at equal angles of incidence, alternately reflected and transmitted for many successions as the thickness of the plate increased, and continuing so to be for innumerable vicissitudes to considerable thicknesses of the plate, and the same thing happening to all the different sorts of rays under the same circumstances, at other different varying thicknesses of the same plate. Hence he concluded, that there was no limitation to these alterations; that they were propagated from every refracting surface to all distances without end; that they were, therefore, properties inherent in light before its incidence on transparent bodies, and probably at its first emission from luminous bodies, and continued in it during all its progress. All the observations thus made are, however, absolutely illusive; and the conclusions drawn from them are, therefore, consequently unfounded. The phænomena themselves are merely cases of the inflections of light; and although part of the light incident on a thin plate does indeed return back into, and part pass on into the further part of the medium contiguous to the plate, yet, strictly speaking, there is neither reflection nor transmission, at least such affections of light as are usually so called, and prevail at the confines of the two different transparent media under other circumstances. This, although not hitherto noticed, is yet not among the least important observations derived from these phenomena.'

The writer next describes an experiment respecting the transmission of light through two plates of glass, brought into contact by pressure; and he then relates other experiments, all tending to confirm his stated opinion:

'Most of the preceding observations (he says) respecting the rings of colours produced by a thin plate of any transparent substance, were made by Newton; but he had not made the observations respecting the inflections of light necessary for understanding and explaining them. In his 5th, 6th, and 7th observations of the 3d book of his Optics respecting the inflections of light, he had unfortunately omitted to observe all the intermediate changes produced in the light passed between the edges of two knives approaching one another in the same plane, particularly the regular production of two distinct sets of fringes, in manner before described, and had leaped from the inflected light of one knife, when the other was removed entirely away, to the last light included between two upon their nearest approach, which lights in both cases he called streams of light, and confounded with each other, noticing only the two or three last fringes, which he did not accurately distinguish from the other fringes made where the knives were more remote, and in light rendered divergent by the small hole through which it passed, although the colours of these were in an order the inverse of the colours of those. Of these rings, therefore, it was impossible for him to discover and understand the principles of the origin and formation. He conceived, contented himself "with the bare discovery," which he conceived and stated that he had made, that they did exist. There is not a natural phænomenon, not even excepting the apparent diurnal revolution of all the heavenly bodies round the earth, which seems to be more directly and unquestionably proved by sense. This is indeed the best evidence to be had in these cases, nor do the perceptions deceive us. It is only in the conclusions drawn from the perceptions, respecting the modes of existence necessary to produce them, that we can be mistaken. If there be more than one mode of producing the same appearances, it is only by a consideration of other the general phænomena, that it can correctly be determined which is the true mode.'

After having discussed the fits of easy transmission and reflection, the explanation of the colours of natural bodies on the principles of thin plates is examined, together with many other parts of the Newtonian doctrine. The following is the examination of Newton's opinion that the least parts of all natural bodies are transparent:

'Newton endeavours to prove this supposition in Prop. II. part. 3. book 2. in this manner. He affirms that the least parts of *almost* all natural bodies are *in some measure* transparent, and he then states that all substances however opaque, if sufficiently thinned and applied to a hole through which light is immitted into a dark room, will appear very manifestly transparent. But these facts do not establish the point. They only show that the bodies themselves are transparent under these circumstances, not the parts of the bodies, and much less the very least parts themselves. When light passes through a perfectly transparent body or any of the bodies of the experiment, there must be parts by which, and not through which the light passes, and of these parts it certainly cannot in these cases be inferred that *they* are transparent, and they are either the least or composed of the least parts. White metalline bodies are indeed excepted of necessity, because they prove against the principle to be established, and yet we shall find hereafter this very principle applied to them also in their metalline state, (fo. 232—3). The same thing is, however, affirmed of them also, when in solution by menstrua they compose transparent liquors, and then it is said they become transparent. Neither, however, in this case does it appear that the body or its least parts are transparent. As to the body or aggregate, the existence of that is destroyed by the solution, and as to the least parts dispersed in the solution, their transparency is no more proved than that of the particles of the menstruum, or of any transparent body, by and between, and not through whose particles light passes, in such a manner as to constitute transparency, and whose least parts certainly cannot be transparent, but must be solid and opaque.'

The other parts of our great philosopher's doctrine here examined are,—those which relate to the opacity and blackness of bodies arising from internal reflections; those which treat of the existence of refractive medium between the parts of opaque and coloured bodies; and those which assign the cause of reflection between transparent media. On this last part, the author says:

'The reason assigned why reflections are only at the surfaces of media adjacent to other media of different densities, and not in the internal parts of the media themselves, is not well founded. It is not because the internal contiguous parts of the same media have the same density, but because the arrangement and condition of their internal parts relatively to one another are different from the arrangement and condition of the parts of the two distinct and different media, at their confines, relatively to one another.'

If we considered merely the size of this tract, the extent of our quotations would be already disproportionate: but we shall increase that quantity by the addition of another extract, without fearing the censure of having too much obtruded on the public the author's thoughts and observations:

'Of the numerous classes of natural bodies there is one which, from the readiness with which all of that class are penetrated and passed through in every direction by light, may be and are called transparent. To this class belong water, ice, glass, crystals of various sorts. From this class is derived another compounded of these, and which, being formed of parts consisting of distinct portions of these, exist as aggregates of them, but without their transparency. From the contemplation of this last class of bodies principally Newton seems to have formed his opinion of, and to have reasoned concerning the structure of all others whatsoever, and even of the bodies themselves from which they are derived, by these he has illustrated, and to these he has referred for proof of every part of his doctrine. This limited conception concerning the internal composition of bodies was by no means fitted for a doctrine that undertook to explain the colours, and causes of production of the colours and appearances by light, of all natural bodies. Yet did the great master contrive to make every thing apparently conform to these principles, and for more than a century they have never been questioned.

'By considering attentively transparent bodies or bodies of the first class, from the phænomena of light, and from other phænomena, we readily perceive that each transparent body is divided into many distinct small parts with intervals between them. These parts and intervals may be called and distinguished by the names of particles and pores. Let us now consider a body of the second class composed of many portions of this same body. Besides the particles and pores of each portion, the aggregate consists of many of these same portions with intervals between them also. These portions are not the same with the particles, nor their intervals the same with the pores. If, therefore, for distinction sake these portions be called parts, as making up the aggregate, and their intervals, interstices, the aggregate will consist not only of parts and interstices, but also of particles and pores, all of which are distinct from each other. Now the direct and principal consequence of Newton's considering all bodies as aggregates of this second class, is an inextricable confusion of parts and particles,

cles, interstices and pores, and the constant and uncontrouled
itution of these for the others, as occasion or the argument re-
d. Of this we have an immediate example in this third propo-
, where, in order to establish and illustrate a general proposition
cting the condition or existence of a substance in the pores be-
n the particles of all bodies, he has produced a list altogether
osed of bodies of the second class or compound aggregates, and
lling the interstices pores, and considering the parts as particles,
pplied to pores and particles what is only shewn of parts and
stices, and endeavoured thus to render the proposition general of
odies. It is true, as he affirms, that paper, the *oculus mundi*
, cloth, and other substances of the same kind become transpa-
by being soaked in water or oil, and again that these having no
r or oil soaked in them, or that glass, horn, water, and oils
g divided into small parts and separated by intermixture of air or
r fluids become opaque; but no argument drawn from these facts
be applied to solid continuous bodies. Between these and those
heir internal constitutions there is no more resemblance than be-
n the particles and pores of solid glass and the intervals between
s pieces of the same glass reduced to powder. These pieces or
are distinct bodies. The phænomena exhibited by these bodies,
consisting of detached parts united only at particular points or
nited at all, are easily to be accounted for by the ordinary re-
ons and refractions between their parts and the parts of any other
nce which we may interpose or remove from amidst them at our
re; but cannot prove the existence of a substance in the pores
se parts themselves which are joined to one another, or in the
of the very medium which is introduced among them where
e not joined.'

ind defects in the accurate philosophy of Newton, or to
pposition to the authority of so great a name, appears
difficult and dangerous undertaking: yet the author of
ent treatise has no cause for regret at the exertion
alents in such an attempt. His observations will be
be made with judgment, and expressed with great
: if, therefore, he may not escape the hostility of the
of the Newtonian doctrine, he at least ought to be
om the severity of repulse which a wanton, a petulant,
becile attack on a long established system might de-
ll forth.

the obscurity which we formerly stated to be cha-
of this author's style, and which is sufficiently ex-
the preceding extracts, arises from his very remark-
nce with respect to punctuation; a matter which is
ut little considered or ill understood by writers,
very necessary to make them well understood by

Art. XV. *Experiments with the Metallic Tractors*, in Rheumatic and Gouty Affections, Inflammations and various Topical Diseases; as published by Surgeons Herholdt and Rafn, of the Royal Academy of Sciences, Copenhagen; translated into German by Professor Tode, Physician to his Danish Majesty; thence into the English Language by Mr. Charles Kampfmuller: also Reports of about one hundred and fifty Cases in England; demonstrating the Efficacy of the Metallic Practice, in a Variety of Complaints, both upon the Human Body, and on Horses, &c. Edited by Benjamin Douglas Perkins, A. M. of Leicester-square, London, Son of the Discoverer. 8vo. pp. 355. 5s. Boards. Johnson, &c.

AMONG all the excentricities of these times of daring innovation, nothing has amused us more than the new school of quackery. The stage and merry-Andrew, the half-sheet bill of advertisement, and the half-crown pill-box, are now exchanged for pompous octavos, and five-guinea subscriptions; and if the shallow pretensions of the empiric should be derided by good judges, he complains that philosophical inquiry is discouraged, and that merit must give way to prejudice. Not contented with enriching himself, by drawing from the inexhaustible mine of public credulity, he presumes to lay his hands on the shrine of Fame itself. There indeed ends his audacity; for in that attempt the reputation of all unworthy candidates must perish.—These reflections, too solemn perhaps for the subject, occurred to our minds on opening the volume before us: in which an extraordinary attempt is made, to elevate the chimerical application of the Metallic Tractors to the rank of an approved remedy.

It would be an insult to the understanding of our readers, particularly of our medical friends, to enter into a serious discussion of this subject *. Indeed, there can be no essential service rendered to the world by detecting any particular species of empiricism, because the principle, on which the victims of quackery are seduced, cannot be eradicated;—the fall of one imposition, therefore, will only make room for the introduction of another. As Mr. Perkins, however, has thought it proper to complain at considerable length, in this book, that we have laughed at him in former articles in our Review, we shall just advert to his hypercriticism. Mr. P. states, (p. 298.)

1. That we have misrepresented one of his Cases, by asserting that the patient was cured in *two* minutes by the tractors;

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* The experiments of medical men on the Continent, reported in this volume, have been already stated by us, in an account of the original work. See Appendix to vol. xxix. of the M. R. New Series, p. 559, &c.

whereas, according to Mr. P. the pain did not *entirely* leave him in less than thirty or forty minutes. In answer, we must observe that, when we come to calculate minutes, the expression of *thirty* or *forty* is extremely inaccurate, and affords no ground of assertion; while the former part of the story goes on very well, that the narrator "bled him three times *to little purpose*; but after about *two minutes* operation with the tractors, he exclaimed in ecstacy "I am well—I am well—my pain is gone."—However, if the reader be determined to place this balance of 28 minutes against us, we beg him to remember that the pain was '*taking leave, tho' loth to depart*,' during their lapse.

2. Mr. P. charges us with having said that the patient had been bled thrice, before the tractors were applied. His friend Dr. Vaughan has stated this fact, and we have merely repeated it from him. The phrase, *to little purpose*, we omitted, because it was indefinite, and apparently conjectural. Practitioners in this country do not consider three successive bleedings as of trifling import.

3. Mr. P. remarks that we have asserted that the tractors are recommended in cases of internal inflammation, whereas external complaints only are mentioned in his book. We have not the first edition of his publication on our table: but we observe that, in the title-page of a second edition of "*The Influence of the Tractors*," advertised at the end of the present collection, *pleurisy* is enumerated among the diseases for which the tractors are applicable.

So far we have been able to go on with a little gravity: but, when we arrived at the following pathetic complaint, (p. 354.) we were compelled to an indecorous fit of laughter:

'This (the Reviewer's) unwarrantable mode of offering *assertion* for *proof*, so unauthorised and even unprecedented, except in the condemnation of a Galileo, the persecution of a Copernicus, and a few other acts of inquisitorial authority, in the times of ignorance and superstition, affords but a lamentable instance indeed of the correctness of one of his remarks, viz. that "this is far from being the *Age of Reason*."

We could point out another predecessor of Mr. Perkins, who complained in equally lofty terms of the wicked wits of his time; we mean the celebrated John Partridge, practitioner in leather and astrology, who was so cruelly treated by a certain 'Squire Bickerstaff. Partridge, too, had the boldness to prefer a charge against his satirist, of having mistaken a point by some minutes—we believe even hours; yet the laugh remained on the side of Bickerstaff.—Mr. Perkins's famous archetype Greatrex, the stroaker, had also equal ground for lamentation, in the overthrow of his imposture.

We shall reserve our farther remarks for the two following articles.

ART. XVI. *Of the Imagination, as a Cause and as a Cure of Disorders of the Body;* exemplified by Fictitious Tractors, and Epidemical Convulsions. Read to the Literary and Philosophical Society of Bath. By John Haygarth, M. D. 8vo. 1s. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

THE candour of a liberal and scientific practitioner was never more strongly exemplified than in this essay. Dr. Haygarth, finding the imposture of the tractors supported by several persons of rank and fashion at Bath, proposed a fair and impartial test of their efficacy, which he has stated in the following words:

"The Tractors have obtained such high reputation at Bath, even among persons of rank and understanding, as to require the particular attention of physicians. Let their merit be impartially investigated, in order to support their fame, if it be well founded, or to correct the publick opinion, if merely formed upon delusion. Such a trial may be accomplished in the most satisfactory manner, and ought to him," and requested me to "*draw it out.*" The pieces of mahogany were drawn gently over his forehead for a minute and a half, "when the throbbing began to abate, and in two minutes had nearly ceased." In about three or four minutes the man arose from the chair, saying, "God bless you, sir; now I am quite easy." He was attacked with this pain only once afterwards, which affected his vision considerably, but it was removed as easily as in the former instance.

"All these cases turning out so happily, it may be imagined that they are *selected.* I declare, however, that they are the first that occur in the minute-book; and if I could imagine it necessary to add more, there are several remaining, equally successful.'—

' *Postscript to Mr.* SMITH'*s Letter.*

"Edmund Williams applied to me with a *stillicidium urinæ.* This man was a poor feeble subject, and appeared to be impressed with the idea that nothing would be serviceable to him; but he was "willing to try any thing." In one minute after the points of the wooden Tractors had been drawn in various directions about the *pelvis,* he said, "I begin to feel something jumping in my inside;" and in three minutes and a half the determination of blood to the capillary vessels of the skin was evident, giving him the sensation of warmth, to which he had been a long time a stranger. On the 27th he reported that his hips had been unusually comfortable and warm; this induced me to persevere, especially as the patient himself was become less sceptical as to the powers of my Tractors. The gentleman who assisted me having borrowed the pieces of stick, I was obliged to make use of the two ten-penny nails, which (as I have before mentioned) were disguised with red and black sealing-wax, and on that account, had the dignified appellation of *Rouge et Noir.* In fact, it was often necessary to play the part of a necromancer—to describe circles, squares, triangles, and half the figures of geometry, upon the part affected, with the small ends of the Tractors. During all this time we conversed upon the discoveries of Franklin and Galvani, laying much stress upon the power of metallick points attracting even lightning, and conveying it to the earth harmless. To a more curious farce I never was witness; we were almost afraid to look each other in the face, lest an involuntary smile should remove the mask from our countenances, and dispel the charm.

"But to return to my patient:—in one minute, he felt a smarting in his loins, and warmth of his skin;" in two, "heat increased;" in four, the operation ceased, when he said "the skin was very warm." A by-stander asked him, 'if he thought himself mended?' He replied, "he would soon answer his question," and upon sitting down, suddenly exclaimed, "yes, I am better." It was demanded, 'how he knew it?' "When I used to sit down, (said the man) there was always a spirt of water thrown from me, but now I can prevent it." The experiment was two or three times repeated, and with the same result; in fact, the patient absolutely regained in a great measure the power of retention afterwards.'

As the simple detection of folly, however, does not accomplish the objects of a philosophical inquirer, Dr. Haygarth has proceeded to investigate the principle on which these effects depend; and he has deduced some very useful conclusions, both for physicians and patients:

'I have long been aware of the great importance of medical faith. Daily experience has constantly confirmed and increased my opinion of its efficacy. On numerous occasions I have declared, that I never wished to have a patient who did not possess a sufficient portion of it. These trials place its efficacy in a very conspicuous point of view, and must even astonish persons who have particularly attended to this subject; they clearly prove what wonderful effects the passions of hope and faith, excited by mere imagination, can produce upon diseases.

'On this principle we may account for the marvellous recoveries frequently ascribed to empirical remedies, which are commonly inert drugs, and generally applied by the ignorant patient in disorders totally different from what the quack himself pretends that they can cure. Magnificent and unqualified promises inspire weak minds with implicit confidence.

'I have sometimes observed that the administration of a new medicine, even when its composition was known, if recommended to the publick with exalted praise, has been attended with great success—much greater that what was confirmed by future experience.

Art. XVII. *The Efficacy of Perkins's Metallic Tractors*, in Topical Diseases, on the Human Body and Animals; exemplified by 250 Cases, from the first Literary Characters in Europe and America. To which is prefixed a Preliminary Discourse, in which the fallacious Attempts of Dr. Haygarth, to detract from the Merits of the Tractors, are detected, and fully confuted. By Benjamin Douglas Perkins, A. M. &c. 12mo. 1s. Johnson. 1800.

HAD Mr. Perkins manifested any ability for controversy, we should have felt a curiosity to know what answer he could oppose to Dr. Haygarth's decisive facts: but we were not surprized to find that he has been totally deficient in argument, though we expected him to have agreed a little better with himself. He has made an unlucky stumble at the threshold, by admitting a great part of Dr. Haygarth's conclusion, in the following terms:

'I beg to repeat what I have often had occasion to remark, in my former publications, that if a medical man can be allowed to select his patients, he may go through an hospital, and, *by observing due solemnity, and inspiring the necessary confidence in his remedy*, he may make the patients generally declare they have experienced *relief*, (I do not say that they will be *cured*, or that any visible effect will be observable on the part affected) and this shall be done with either a stick, stone, brickbat, skewer, pipe-stem, or indeed without any thing but his bare finger.'

After having protested, also, against any pretensions to cure *internal inflammation* *, and after having limited himself to *topical diseases* in the title-page of the present work, we observe that cases are here produced, in which *epilepsy*, *erysipelas*, *gout*, *palsy*, *pleurisy*, and *peripneumony*, *rheumatism* of both kinds, *chorea*, and other spasmodic affections, have been treated by the Tractors. If Mr. P. reckons these disorders among those which are topical or external, he must labour under as strange a delusion as his advocates. Could this matter bear a serious examination, so gross an instance of ignorance would be sufficiently conclusive against his pretensions.

We must, however, notice Mr. Perkins's attempt to shelter himself under the letter of acknowlegement sent by the Secretary of the Royal Society, in return for the present of Mr. P.'s book. It is well understood that a printed form is filled up, on such occasions, with the name of the author and the title of his work, to prevent the possibility of surmising that the Society pledges itself to the support of any opinions contained in the books presented.—Mr. P. is perhaps as little acquainted with the usages of that society, as with the classic author whom he has so barbarously disfigured, in this quotation; "*Oh! auri sacra fames, quid non mortalia pectora cogis?*"

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* See Article xv. p. 418. on the Copenhagen Experiments.

Great weight is laid by the writer on the experiments with horses; which animals cannot, he observes, be influenced by imagination, in these operations; and which certainly cannot inform us of their feelings very distinctly, though we know that they are easily terrified. We would advise Mr. P. however, to adhere to experiments on asses of the *biped* breed, as more comfortable subjects. An unlucky kick, from an incredulous Caballine patient, might produce mischief which the Tractors cannot remove, even though it should be a *topical disease.*

It is curious that the trials of the tractors on *Sheep* have not succeeded. We suppose that the modesty of this animal creates a natural antipathy to the application. If *Geese* had been selected, perhaps the cases would have better answered Mr. P.'s expectations.

We now dismiss this contest; not *Numa quo devenit et Ancus*, but to that *barathrum* in which the fame of Dr. Reck and his brethren is involved in permanent darkness.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For AUGUST, 1801.

EAST INDIES.

Art. 18. *A Grammar of the Malay Tongue*, as spoken in the Peninsula of Malacca, the Islands of Sumatra, Java, Borneo, Pulo-pinang, &c.; compiled from Bowrey's Dictionary, and other authentic Documents, manuscript and printed; embellished with a Map. 4to. pp. 40. 7s. 6d. Boards. Sewell. 1800.

In the year 1710, Mr. Thomas Bowrey published a Dictionary of the Malayan tongue, which is now become exceedingly scarce. The extensive commerce carried on with the inhabitants of the eastern peninsula and adjacent isles, through the medium of this language, certainly renders the present work an useful undertaking; and the possession of the Dutch isles must tend to enlarge the sphere of its utility, while they continue in our hands: but that utility is prodigiously exaggerated in the advertisement to the book; where, among other reasons for its publication, we find the following: 'The vast extent of country over which the language is spoken, comprehending the peninsula of Malacca, the islands of Sumatra, Java, Borneo, Maccasser, Bali, Cumbava, Salayer, Butun, Buro, Seram, Pulo-pinang, the Moluccas, and innumerable others.' The fact is that the Malays, a trading people of Arabian extraction, having settled pretty generally on the coasts of these countries, where their numbers were gradually increased by new adventurers, and by converting some of the original tribes to the Mohammedan faith, became at last a widely-dispersed, though never either a numerous or a powerful nation. Their language, however, is nearly limited (like their possessions) to the coasts of those distant countries; and the Aborigines retain their primæval idioms, unmixed with that of Arabia, which the Malays probably spoke pure on their first arrival. As far as we can judge from the scanty specimens here exhibited, the Malays have borrowed largely from the language of those Aboriginal inhabitants; and though we can still discern a considerable admixture of Arabian terms, yet these constitute a small part of the whole. Our attention was arrested by discovering a number of pure Sanscrit nouns, with their original signification; these the Malays must have adopted from the people among whom they settled: a fact, which cannot fail to suggest some enteresting conclusions to the philosophic historian.

The Malayan language is represented as singularly soft and pleasing to the ear; and it certainly may boast of the most simple construction of any existing dialect. Neither the nouns nor the verbs undergo any change of termination; the cases of the former are marked by prepositions, and the number by repeating the word. The mode, tense, and voice of the verbs are distinguished by different words prefixed for each.—So imperfect a dialect is ill calculated for poetry; and we conclude, from the wretched specimen exhibited by Mr. Marsden, and here copied, that the muses have not been propitious to the Malays.

In the execution of this work, we observe little which merits praise; the language is often loose and inaccurate; and many mistakes occur which must prove perplexing to the student, though we cannot determine, in all cases, whether the errors be imputable to the printer or the author. For instance, we are told that 'the verb in the active voice is only expressed in the passive:' here the author means to say that the active verb undergoes no change when rendered passive by the addition of certain words prefixed. Again, we read that 'there are neither genders nor supines in the language of Malacca:' gerunds are surely meant in this passage.—Again, 'the particle *ber* placed before the verb turns it into a participle of the present tense;' it is manifest, both from the examples and the meaning of *ber* repeatedly expressed, that, when prefixed, it gives the participle preterite of the passive. Such faults cannot be too severely censured in an elementary work; since they create unnecessary perplexity, and obstruct that improvement which they profess to facilitate.

EDUCATION.

Art. 19. *Amusing and instructive Conversations for Children of five Years;* from the French of the Abbé Gaultier. Small 8vo. pp. 169. 2s. Boards. West and Hughes. 1800.

Proceeding, as some others have lately done, on Mr. Locke's opinion "that learning might be made a play and recreation to children," the Abbé Gaultier has here produced a work that is likely to prove entertaining and useful to those who are farther advanced than the age of five years. 'The plan of it (the editor observes) is threefold: the first object is to present moral and entertaining readings for very young children;—the second part is to introduce the young reader to grammar, by teaching him to discover the parts of speech of which the sentences he has read are composed. But the work is most directly applied to the purpose of grammatical instruction in the dialogues which follow the lessons: in these the Abbé has attempted, under the title of games (as the *game of the noun*, &c.) to amuse children with even grammar-learning.' Our work does not admit of any particular description of the author's proposed amusements in these pretty lessons and dialogues: but we join in the applause which this little performance has justly received. At the same time, it may not be improper to intimate some suitable caution against infecting the early and tender disciple with mercenary and selfish desires,—or with false and dangerous notions of superiority,—or with a propensity to or love of *gaming*;—all or any of which prove too often so injurious in the progress through life.

Art. 20. *A Method of making Abridgments*, or easy and certain Rules for analysing Authors. Divided into two Parts; the first containing preliminary Explanations, and the Rules for making Abridgments: the second, the Applications of those Rules to various Selections from the best Authors. By the Abbé Gaultier. Part II. 4to. pp. 130. 10s. 6d. Boards. Newbery. 1801.

Of the first part of this performance, we gave an account in our 33d volume, N. S. p. 102, and bestowed on it that commendation to which its merits intitled it. The author's design is completed by the present publication. Addison's admirable Essays on the Pleasures of the Imagination, Bishop Atterbury's eloquent Sermon on the Duty of Praise and Thanksgiving, and Dean Swift's Proposal for correcting, improving, and ascertaining the English Language, have been selected by the Abbé Gaultier as the fittest passages in our Literature to illustrate his method of making abridgments. This choice, to which he had been directed by the example of Dr. Blair in his Lectures, must be allowed to be judicious; and the work is calculated to amuse and to instruct young readers.

Art. 21. *Juliania;* or, the Affectionate Sisters. Small 12mo. 2s. Half-bound. Hurst. 1800.

Art. 22. *Memoirs of Dick, the Little Poney*, supposed to be written by himself; and published for the Instruction and Amusement of good Boys and Girls. Small 12mo. 2s. Half-bound. Newbery.

Art. 23. *The Stories of Senex;* or, Little Histories of Little People. By E. A. Kendal. Small 12mo. 2s. Half-bound. Newbery.

The supply of mental provision for the nursery, as we lately observed, has become so abundant, that it is difficult for us to examine and digest the whole of it. Indeed, we must either limit our inspection, or take a more cursory view of the different articles.

In general, we find that all such little books, as those of which the titles are given above, are in most respects well calculated for the end proposed, and are also liable to some objections. The morality inculcated is almost uniformly good: but one defect is also as invariably apparent in a greater or less degree; we mean the use of words of which not only the length renders them difficult for a *child* to pronounce, but of which the meaning is also far from obvious to a juvenile capacity. This remark is particularly applicable to the introduction of metaphorical expressions, compound phrases, and words more immediately derived either from the classical languages, or from the modern continental tongues *.—When the work is designed for those who are advancing rather beyond the years of *childhood*, in course this objection is not so valid: but even then the explanations of a parent or a teacher will be necessary; and we think that, as these works are designed to instil the rudiments of morality, the lesson should lose none of its efficacy by a difficulty of comprehending the language in which it is conveyed. At the early period here contemplated, the conception of an idea should not be obstructed by the explanation of a term.

If we waive the usual objection against conferring the gift of speech on birds and beasts, the *Memoirs of Little Dick the Poney* are highly praiseworthy, as inculcating the very laudable and but *too necessary* maxims of mercy and kindness towards such animals:—but our little grandchildren complain that *this story book is full of hard words.*

NOVELS.

Art. 24. *Adonia*, a desultory Story. 12mo. 4 Vols. 18s. sewed. Black and Co. 1801.

Though the dedication informs us that this work is the production of a female, it is not from a motive of common gallantry that we are induced to speak well of it, since its own intrinsic merits command our praise. An extract will convince our readers, that, in the early age of the author, in the modesty with which she speaks of her performance, and in the amiable motive for its publication, we should have found a sufficient justification for a favourable report:

'Time has wrought wonderous changes on myself, and but a short time too. Though, since I began these memoirs, I have added little or nothing to my stock of book-learning; and I do not mean to affront you, my patient reader, by supposing that you have not already discovered that stock to be sufficiently scanty, without requiring that I should be the herald of my own shame; though I am sensible that my story might have been better contrived, my characters more natural and varied, my language more correct, and, above all, that the political confab between the Marchioness and my friend Johanna, in the 136th and few following pages of this volume, might at least have been disguised by a newer dress, I am contented in my nineteenth year to abandon all struggle for the literary *eminence* to which I once aspired, and to resume without loss of time, and send into the world with all its imperfections on its head, a novel, which only a few months ago I threw by me as hopeless of completion.—My motive for this intrusion on the public *is not a personal one,* or I might perhaps blush to avow that " I write for fortune, not for fame." But, if my book should have the good fortune to experience a reception equally favorable with the middle class of the other novels of the day, and thence enable me to assist in relieving the necessities of a very near and dear friend, (plunged in unexpected misfortunes, and yet too delicate to accept the common modes of succour, as likely to inconvenience those she loves,) I shall not regret having sacrificed, to obtain such a recompence, the feelings which would otherwise have deterred me from exposing myself to the imputation of vanity or the reproofs of criticism.

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* Such as, retrospect, prescription, transformed, tyrannize, anticipation, unanimous, precipitation, replenished, propensity, concilirate, elaxation, &c. &c.

'Gentle reader, another apostrophe or two, and I will impose my egotisms upon thy indulgence no longer.—If thou art fifteen, I know thou wilt sympathise in my page, and read it through with as much avidity as thou hast haply read fifty other such productions of fancy before; I therefore give it to thee with *pleasure*. If thou art seventeen, and thine eyes begin to open upon the fallacies of life, while thy heart yet remains enthralled by its deceitful promises; if thy mind begins to fill with new ideas, and to obtain views of its own capacity which it knew not of before, thou wilt perhaps be tempted to smile at a tale so flimsily wrought; but thou wilt nevertheless peruse it, and seek eagerly for its catastrophe. To thee I give it with *confidence*; for thou wilt be a partial, although thou shouldest not be an undiscerning, critic; as our hearts are commonly most bigoted to our mistaken views of life, in the moment when the understanding is preparing to renounce them.—If thou art even, like me, verging towards thy twentieth year, and hast for ever bidden adieu to romantic expectation and high wrought sensibilities, I do not *fear* thee. Thou wilt find nothing here which can contaminate; and it may not be unpleasing to thee to have thy former feelings awakened by fictitious distresses, especially when thou hast heard the simple apology of an author of thine own age.—From readers of more advanced years, and of better-stored minds, I have only to entreat forbearance: I cannot accurately judge of *their* feelings, but I believe that every year produces some revolution in our sentiments; and such as these may be disposed to treat me with severity. But I cannot stay to deprecate the criticism of others farther; nor must I allow myself to pursue my own. I must not falter from my purpose, nor anticipate aught which may hereafter make me repent having thrown upon the mercy of the world a work whose only engine was the hand of fancy,—a novel which asks not for fame, but *forbearance*,—which hopes not to inform, but to amuse without injuring.'——

Art. 25. *The Microcosm.* By the Author of Vicissitudes in genteel Life. 12mo. 5 Vols. 1l. sewed. Mawman. 1801.

We experience great satisfaction when it is in our power to announce the appearance of a novel, of which we can approve the tendency and applaud the execution. It is too frequently our lot to peruse and pass judgement on works of this class, which leave an unsatisfactory and melancholy impression on the mind, from the gloomy views of human nature which they exhibit, or from the interest which they excite in behalf of characters whose principles and conduct we must condemn. Not such, however, was the effect produced by the present volumes. The long established rules of morality and religion are here respected and upheld; and we are called to bestow our love and esteem, only when reason gives the sanction of her approbation. Notwithstanding that the adventures are extended to five volumes, and that the narrative is frequently interrupted by digressions, it possesses sufficient interest to reward an attentive perusal. The style is lively, without being flippant, and the language is generally correct and perspicuous. We frequently meet, also, with an archness of observation and a propriety of sentiment in the digressive parts, which carry with them a sufficient apology for the breaks which they cause in the narrative; and the author manifestly possesses considerable skill in drawing and discriminating characters.

Having thus pointed out the merits of this work, we have now to state its principal faults; which appear to be the introduction of too many characters, and too great an intricacy of plot. We think that these objections might have been obviated, if the author had possessed the resolution to deviate from a practice which he describes in the preface:

' It is a misfortune to me, perhaps a greater to my readers, that I never am able to transcribe what I have written. My first copy has always been my last. Could I write over again the following volumes, I should probably make great alterations in them; but the task would be extreme: indeed not practicable. The work must be sent into the world, if sent at all, " with all its faults upon its head."

We conceive that it is a duty which every author owes to the public, frequently to revise and reconsider his work before he sends it to the press; and he does not contribute to the permanency of his own reputation, when he sends it " with all its imperfections on its head," instead of exerting his best efforts to remove them. We hope that the writer of the Microcosm will not be seduced, in future, into a compliance with so indolent a practice, by the false *éclat* which may appear to attach to the adoption of it.

Art. 26. *The Picture of the Age*. 12mo. 2 Vols. 6 s. sewed. Symonds.

Notwithstanding the comprehensive title of this work, the author has attempted to delineate only one feature of the present times; viz. the sytsem of collusion practised in order to procure a divorce, when a married couple happen to fix their inclinations respectively on other objects. The fable is that of a woman who has been hurried into marriage with a man who was indifferent to her, while her heart was secretly engaged to another; after which the willowed lover returns, and takes up his residence with the husband; and the volumes are chiefly employed in describing the progress of his passion for the lady, to the formation of a guilty connexion: while it appears that the husband has actually connived at his own dishonour, because he had formed another attachment, and wishes to get rid of his wife. The story concludes with the happy event of the divorce, and with a double marriage.

In one other view, however, this production may be considered as a picture of our times; it exhibits vicious characters, dressed out in the most amiable and attractive colours which the author's pencil can supply: temptation is with him an excuse for crime, and all his personages have a most accommodating sympathy for each other's frailties. This is truly the spirit of some modern novelists, who delight in palliating error, and in reconciling their readers to false and extravagant delineations of character and conduct. Hence we are taught to seek for virtue among felons in a gaol, and for wisdom in Bedlam; and hence, as in the composition before us, we are told that the violation of some of our most important duties proceeds from 'grandeur of mind,' and superiority of talents.

One great fault in the *conduct* of the story, also, is that the event is anticipated at the commencement of the second volume. The interest consequently languishes, and requires the support of an under-plot, which is too extensive for the size of the work.

After this censure of the scope of the book, justice requires us to add that it is written in a better style than most productions of this nature can boast.

Art. 27. *The School for Fashion.* By Mrs. Thicknesse. 8vo. 2 Vols. 12s. Boards. Debrett, &c. 1800.

These volumes contain a variety of miscellaneous matter, divided into chapters. They commence with a description of Bon-Ton Hall, where we are rather surprised to meet with only those *shades of fashion* who are now walking in the *Elysian fields*. It is long, very long, since the Duchess of Queensberry dressed like a beggar woman, with a tucked up linen gown and an old black bonnet, diverting herself and the world by going about in masquerade:—but we have no other objection to renewing our acquaintance with this whimsical but worthy Duchess, than that she is here completely out of her place, because, when we look to the title, we expect to meet with *fashionables* of the present day, not those of antiquity. The great personages who formed the circle at Bon-Ton Hall, and whom we recollect by the initials of their names, having exhibited themselves on a theatre on which the scenes have long been closed, the curtain let down, and the actors and actresses disappeared, we can say no more to them than "peace be to their manes."

The indecorous freedoms, also, introduced through the familiarity of the stay maker and the hair dresser, no longer make us tremble for our young people; though, as every age has its peculiar incentives to vice and folly, the present times may have other *fashions* of an equally *objectionable* nature. In the dedication to *Fashion*, however, which is written with spirit, we question whether Mrs. T. be not rather too severe on the reigning goddess: since, after the scenes described at Bon-Ton-hall, it appears that she was as much "the demon of impudence" at that period as at the present, with scarcely any exception even of Grecian drapery.

As this miscellany is detailed in rather a desultory manner, it produces a sensation on the reader similar to that which we have occasionally experienced from great talkers, whose discourse consists of disjointed materials, and who, by rapidly passing from one subject to another, leave the hearer's attention at a remote distance, unless he be a very good listener.—Euterpe's travels on the continent, furnished (we apprehend) from the late Mr. T.'s common place book, abound with such very extraordinary anecdotes, that they must often impose a hard task on the reader, in requiring him to find credulity sufficient for the occasion: yet, in general, we have been amused by them; and they merit praise for some pertinent and sensible remarks.

LAW.

Art. 28. *A View of the principal Parts of the most important Statutes relative to Game*, with explanatory Cases and Observations. By an Attorney. 8vo. pp. 130. 3s. sewed. Lackington and Allen. 1801.

An advertisement informs the reader that this author 'writes not for professional men, but merely for the sportsman who is neither led by business nor inclination to study the yellow leaves of musty Statutes.' Yet the pamphlet, if exclusively addressed to any set of readers, *is* addressed to those of the profession; since it contains a variety of decisions which the writer considers as contradictory, and on which he refers to what he calls clashing authorities in our law books.—It is immaterial, however, for what description of persons this work was intended, because it will not be found useful by any, being full of affectation and inconsistencies.

Art. 29. *Inquiries into the Nature of Leasehold Property*; in which the relative Situations of Lessor and Lessee, Landlord and Tenant, are fairly considered. By a Gentleman of the Temple. 8vo. pp. 60. 1s. 6d. Bickerstaff. 1801.

The contents of this pamphlet will not be found very useful by those of our readers who are in possession of Bacon's Abridgement, in which this subject, under the title of *Leases and Terms for years*, is fully and ably considered. The author of the present work has indeed chiefly confined his attention to college and corporation leases, and to the right which the lessee has to insist on a renewal of them, on the payment of a moderate and reasonable fine. This right is certainly not recognised in our Courts of Law; and our Courts of Equity will not interpose, except under very particular circumstances, to enforce the claim of the tenant. The lessee being thus left without remedy, we do not find it easy to assign any foundation for this right in him; and the present production is not calculated to remove our difficulties. A few obvious remarks on the respective duties of landlord and tenant, and many illiberal and declamatory reflections on surveyors and land-valuers, constitute the bulk of the performance.

Art. 30. *Decisions in the High Court of Admiralty*, during the Time of Sir George Hay, and of Sir James Marriott, late Judges of that Court. Vol. I. Michaelmas Term 1776, to Hilary Term 1779. 8vo. pp. 360. 9s. Boards. Bickerstaff. 1801.

The example, lately set by Doctor Robinson, of publishing reports of cases decided in the High Court of Admiralty, seems to have occasioned the appearance of the present volume. The practice is to be commended, as it furnishes not only to our own country, but to the world at large, (which, from the very subject matter of them, is interested in these determinations;) opportunities of judging of the principles on which they proceed. Questions of great extent and importance in their consequences have lately been agitated in this court: similar cases occurred during the course of the American war; and the discussions which they produced, and the judgments which followed, are here reported, we doubt not, with perfect accuracy. As this professes to be the *first* volume of the work, we shall delay a more minute notice of its contents till the publication of the remainder.—The preface, we are sorry to observe, exhibits many instances of spleen and ill-will, and seems to intimate much more than meets the eye.

Art. 31. *Reports of Cases argued and determined in the Courts of Common Pleas and Exchequer Chamber;* from Easter Term 28th George III. 1788, to Hilary Term 36th George III. 1796. By Henry Blackstone of the Middle Temple. The Third Edition, corrected with Additional Notes and improved Indexes. 2 Vols. Royal 8vo. 2l. 2s. bound. Butterworth. 1801.

We take an early opportunity of announcing to the public the appearance, in their present commodious size, of these valuable reports; of which we have on former occasions spoken in terms of commendation. See M. R. vol. lxxx. p. 360. 549. N. S. vol. iii. p. 335. vol. xii. p. 95. and vol. xxi. p. 112.

Art. 32. *Cursory Remarks on the Laws with respect to the Imprisonment of Debtors.* By Henry Beard, of the Inner Temple. 8vo. 1s. Scott. 1801.

This is a sensible and well-written pamphlet; in which the author argues, with reason and humanity, on the inexpediency and hardship of imprisoning the honest but unfortunate debtor, for his inability to discharge the debts which he may have been compelled to contract; thus involving him in the same misery with the fraudulent, the speculating, and the designing members of society. Some line certainly should be drawn between these opposite descriptions of persons, one deserving punishment, the other meriting compassion. The *Cessio bonorum*, in the civil law, discharged the person of the debtor from the liability to arrest, but gave the creditor the benefit of an execution against the property, when he should become more prosperous.—The subject is difficult, and connected with the dearest interests of society. It is at present receiving that attention from the legislature, which its importance requires.

RELIGIOUS.

Art. 33. *A compendious Dictionary of the Holy Bible:* exhibiting a biographical History of the Persons; a geographico-historical Account of the Places; a literal, critical, and systematical Description of other Objects, whether natural, artificial, civil, religious, or military, including the Significations of the Hebrew and other Words occurring therein: Likewise a brief View of the Figures and Metaphors of Holy Writ. To which is added an

Appendix

ıpendix, containing Essays on various Biblical Subjects, and Chronological Table of Scripture History. Second Edition, ısiderably enlarged. 8vo. pp. 588. 7s. Boards. Button. o.

work of this kind, executed with learning, fidelity, and judg- cannot fail of being extensively beneficial; and, even if it d be somewhat deficient in these characteristics, it may still very serviceable to numbers. The larger volumes of this are out of the reach of the generality of readers, a circum- which renders compendiums like the present desirable; and ork, notwithstanding all the assistance of prior writers, has not accomplished without much exertion. We learn that the first ssion has received *liberal encouragement;* which we hear with ıre, as far as it leads us to conclude that there are many who sposed to consult the scriptures, and who wish for information rning them: but, if it be asked whether this dictionary em- any particular human scheme of systematic divinity, we must r in the affirmative. John Calvin, and John Gill, appear to be he almost inspired directors. The more peculiar terms and s of scripture are confidently, and without hesitation, explained formity to Calvinistic ideas, even to the terrific and horrible ne of reprobation:—a doctrine so repugnant to all sentiments ıerely of benevolence but of justice, that if a man does really it into his belief, it is not easy to suppose that, though safe f, he could have any true peace or satisfaction in existence. ıook of this kind, no one should presume thus to dictate and although he may endeavour to explain. While we allow, ore, the advantage which general readers may derive from this ation, they are to remember that, in the instances to which we lluded, they are not implicitly to receive the professed explica- here stated as certain truth. Many writers, to say the least, learned, intelligent, judicious, and faithful, have given very nt accounts.

Appendix contains eight essays, ' the principal subjects of are the inspiration or divine authority of the books of the Old ew Testament; the internal and external evidences of Christi- Jesus Christ, the sum and substance of the scriptures; the mation; the manner of interpreting the sacred oracles adopted Jews, with short notices relative to the Mishna, Gemarah, Jewish confession of faith; Christian authors who have written y titles of the traditional laws of the Jews.' To these is an account of the late missions to foreign countries, with a ılogical table. Of the above essays, that on the Reformation to be one of the best: the Jewish confession, in thirteen s, is extracted from Buxtorf's treatise "*De Synagoga Judaica;*" nd the article relative to the Jews, are rather curious; and the also contain several useful remarks, intermixed with some are less necessary and less satisfactory.—The two little maps ıe three prints will be pleasing to some readers: but the ı subject of the last print requires to be fairly related and uthenticated.

Art 34. *Twelve Sermons*, by John Grose, A. M. F. A. S. Curate of the united Parishes of St Margaret Pattens and St. Gabriel Fenchurch, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 191. 7s. 6d. Boards. Rivingtons. 1800.

Perhaps the best account which we can give of this volume will be conveyed in the words of its author, who thus speaks of the discourses here submitted to the public:

'Instead of affecting any claim to literary merit, they are only exhibited as a part of those professional labours in which the writer is constantly engaged. Whether amidst the numerous works of genius and celebrity which dignify the present age, this humble effort may be considered an intrusion, must be left to the decision of the candid and impartial. If a sincere and ardent wish, to promote the interests of religion and virtue, to recommend internal piety and practical holiness, and to urge the importance of religion as seated in the heart and amending the life; if these motives will furnish a sufficient apology for giving publicity to this work, they are readily offered, with a hope that the plea will not be altogether inadmissible or unjust. The doctrines which are principally enforced in these discourses are, the fallen state of human nature—the turpitude and guilt of sin—the purity and extent of the moral law—the absolute need of an expiatory atonement for sin—and the full, finished, and perfect redemption, which Christ hath accomplished for the guilty.—And, whilst they point out from the authority of holy writ, that Christ is the way, the truth, and the life—and the only name given under heaven whereby we can be saved—they no less recommend to our serious attention, the *morality* of the gospel, and the inseparable union of faith and practice. While they assert the absolute need of regenerating grace, and the blessed agency of the Holy Spirit, they uniformly urge the importance of cultivating those Christian graces, which peculiarly adorn our holy religion.'

Such, says Mr. Grose, are the prominent features of these sermons; which, he adds very justly, are written in strict conformity to the articles, homilies, and liturgy of the English establishment.

Several just observations, useful and valuable sentiments, and impressive admonitions, are dispersed through the volume, expressed in good language, though of rather a declamatory kind. On some occasions, perhaps, the author's reflections or assertions might not stand the trial of criticism, of fact, and of experience: but we forbear from such minute examination, wishing success to every really well-intended attempt to serve and improve mankind.

Art. 35. *Sermons on various Subjects and Occasions.* By Alexander Grant, D. D. Minister of the English Episcopal Chapel at Dundee. 2 Vols. 8vo. 10s. Boards. Ginger. 1800.

Dr. Grant appears to have much of the air, the fluency, and the spirit of many of his brethren in the Scotch establishment, from which he dissents. Thirty-six sermons compose the two volumes, the subjects of which we do not enumerate, as they are merely denominated by the texts of scripture on which they separately treat. Their language is plain, serious, and suitable; their prevalent characteristic is that of orthodoxy according to the doctrine of the English church: but their full bent and scope are practical.

In the second volume, we find sermons on Good Friday, Easter, Ascension, Whitsunday; and in the first, one on Christmas day: they comport with the seasons appropriated by ecclesiatical direction, and are applied to instructive purposes. Indeed, though this writer takes frequent opportunity of vindicating that mode of faith and worship to which he has attached himself, we must repeat that the great drift of these volumes is to advance piety and virtue in all their branches; no doctrines or professions being considered as of any worth but in such a connection. On Matth. xxiv. 36. *Of that day and hour knoweth no man,* &c. we have an agreeable and improving discourse respecting our ignorance of futurity, without recurring to the difficulty which attends the passage, on comparing it with the parallel text in Mark. That Dr. G. is a man of knowlege, and of learning, appears by references to antient historians and other authors. That striking passage of Plato, in which the philosopher seems to express his wish, and to intimate his hope, that some divine instructor might arise to enlighten mankind, is particularly noticed.

POETRY, *&c.*

Art. 36. *A Poetical Epistle to Benjamin Count Rumford,* Knight of the White Eagle, &c. &c. By Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 1s. 6d. West and Hughes. 1801.

It is probable that the worthy Bavarian Count did not expect to be *roasted,* for his economical culinary inventions, by a bard

'whose hempen string, alack!
Serves as a substitute for spit and jack:'

but P. P. considering him as delicious game, hangs him on his line, and turns him round before as fierce a fire as he can make in the kitchen-range of his satiric Muse. The *Royal Institution,* also, after being abundantly peppered, is placed on the poetical grid-iron, and in this situation furnishes a very ludicrous exhibition. We shall copy the poet's invocation to his Muse on this occasion, that our readers may judge of the style of this humourous performance:

'Muse, at the sound of RUMFORD, *raise* thy voice,
And bid our kitchen furniture rejoice!
Tho' scant our store, a hempen string, alack
(A simple substitute for spit and jack,)
A knife and fork, a dish, a spoon and platter,
Shall *stir their stumps,* and make a jovial clatter;
The broom shall hop, as merry as a *grig;*
And, pleas'd, the dainty dishclout dance a jig;
Expressing thus in gratitude their souls
To him whose wisdom saves us *pecks* of coals;
And means (for PITT's d—mn'd taxes this require)
To teach us soon to roast *without a fire.*
Friend to thy fame, (and may it last thee long!)
Tho' G. and BANKS grow jealous of the song;
Howe'er its praise may wound some COURTLY FOLK,
That song shall thunder to the MAN OF SMOKE!'

P. P.'s fingers still itch to be at his old sport: but we caution him against playing any more with ——. A single letter may mean too much; and a line, though it wants a syllable, may be too long for him. As Poetry and Prudence, however, have seldom been known to sleep in the same garret, we offer this hint with no very sanguine hope of reforming this too facetious Bard.

Art. 37. *A Rainy Day*, or Poetical Impressions during a Stay at Brighthelmstone in the Mouth of July, 1801. By James Boaden. 4to. 2s. Egerton.

We cannot compliment Mr. Boaden on having diffused much poetical sun-shine over his Rainy Day, nor on having excited vivid impressions of the brilliancy of his genius. In our opinion, he excels neither in his subjects nor in his verse; and sometimes he is deficient even in grammar. Such lines as the following we might have expected from the title:

> ——' Better on the downs
> Where health may come, though fortune fly away;—
> Than in the hells of London, where the knave
> Purses the plunder of a thousand fools,
> Sallow and wasting o'er the midnight lamp:'

but we could not suppose that the circumstance of there being at Worthing two innkeepers, opposite to each other, one named *Bacon* and the other *Hogsflesh*, would have been the subject of comment, and have produced an apostrophe to *Chance*:

> ——' I must smile
> To see thy freaks exemplified ev'n here.
> Two houses catch the eye upon the shore,
> By landlords kept, with names ordain'd to meet,
> Bacon and Hogsflesh - - - Does it not exceed
> Contrivance far? Thus have I seen full oft
> Two flitches hang in opposition proud,
> The same in nature, but of different sides.'

He who cannot write better than this, 'be whom it may,' as Mr. B. ungrammatically expresses himself, will not chase from our minds the gloom of 'a rainy day.'

Art. 38. *The Canonization of Thomas - - - - Esq.* who has lately erected at East L- - - -h, Dorset, a Monastery and therein established a Body of Monks. The Stanzas by Sternhold and Hopkins, Poets Laureat to the Monastery. The Notes by Addison, Abp. Tillotson, Hume, Duigenan, Rennell, Bp. Newton, Voltaire, Bp. Sherlock, and Judge Blackstone. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Kirby, &c. 1801.

An unmerciful satire on the poor, old, tatter'd, worn-out harlot of Babylon, whose cap is here torn, and whose petticoats are most grievously (we had almost said *prophanely*) rumpled by Verse-man and Prose-man. The efforts of the former, humourously armed with weapons cast in the molds of Sternhold and Hopkins, have treated us with a good laugh, at the expence of his HOLINESS and the CONCLAVE. The immediate occasion of this their meeting in solemn convocation,

vocation, however, must be *seriously* given in the words of the preface to the present publication:

'The Monastery alluded to in the following lines, is a large pile of brick building, erected at great expence, on the Southern coast. It has a chapel, cloisters, dormitory, images, and all the usual apparatus of popish superstition. The chapel, which is elegantly neat, is furnished with seats for about forty monks; of which number, between twenty and thirty are already assembled. Walls, inclosing about an acre, encompass the edifice: round these, a large allotment of land, amounting to several acres, is fenced in for the use of the monks, who often appear there in the habit of their order.

'The number of persons at this place, who within these few years, have embraced the Romish faith, is very considerable: the contagion has spread, and is spreading into the neighbouring villages.

'The Court of Rome, ever intent on the best means of extending its influence, has always zealously promoted the establishment of monasteries: on these it has relied, not merely for the gaining of converts, but for the acquisition even of territory.'

Whether there be in fact sufficient ground for so much alarm as is here expressed, on account of the Dorsetshire monastery, we are not informed, farther than by the brief information here given with respect to its real design and probable consequences: but, on the whole, we may recommend this motley tract to the perusal of the good protestant reader; who may think, with the author, that at least the *politics* of the church of Rome, to say nothing of her *religion*, ought ever to be unremittingly opposed by careful and vigilant protestant watchmen.

With respect to the droll story here told, in Sternholdian verse, of the *canonization* of the pious founder of Lulworth monastery, and how far the matter is founded on any *actual proceedings*, we must wait, with patience, for that satisfactory information which this pleasant alarmist does not afford us.

POLITICS, &c.

Art. 39. *Considerations on the Right of the Clergy of England to a Seat in Parliament.* By a Member of Lincoln's Inn. 8vo. pp. 55. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1801.

In this pamphlet, much assiduity is exerted to prove that the clergy cannot claim a seat in parliament, on the principle of representation being a natural and inherent right;—that there never was a moment in which their right to a seat and a voice in the House of Commons was either expressly declared or could be justly inferred;—and that it would be impolitic, and inconsistent with the sacred engagements of the beneficed clergy, to create such a right for them. To establish these positions, the author reasons on natural and communicable rights, explores the antient records and usages of parliament, and discusses the nature of the clerical functions: but, throughout his examination of this subject, he is more ingenious and legally learned than argumentatively convincing. It is unnecessary here to wander into disquisitions on abstract rights, or to examine the convocations to parliament by Edred or Ina. The question respecting the eligibility of the clergy to a seat in the Commons House of Parliament lies, as the lawyers say, in a nutshell. While holding a cure of souls, and under an obligation to parochial residence, they ought not to have a seat in parliament; since the duties of the two offices are incompatible with each other. This is evident. The only point to be debated is, *Must the clerical character be considered as indelible?*—*Yes*, is the answer which this gentleman is inclined to give; though he urges nothing but the decision of the canon law in its support. The priestly profession was not regarded in such a light by the antient Romans, for nothing was more common with them than for a man to be a *Flamen* one year, and to be in a civil office the next; indeed, to act as priest and legislator at the same time, for with them the priesthood was not an order;—and perhaps, if the subject were calmly debated, we should be inclined to allow that it is as impolitic as it is tyrannical to oblige a man, who has once put on a black coat, to wear it all the days of his life whether he will or not, whether inclined or disinclined to the sacred profession.

Art. 40. *The Letters of Fabius to the Right Hon. William Pitt*, on his proposed Abolition of the Test, in favour of the Roman Catholics of Ireland. With an Appendix containing Mr. Pitt's Speech in the Debate of 1790. 8vo. 2s. Cobbett and Morgan.

Of the six letters which compose this publication, four have already appeared in a public news-paper; the others, and a preface, have been added, to complete the author's view of the subject. The

Calculated to stimulate a vigorous resistance to the French, if they were to attempt an invasion of this country. We trust that the feelings of every Englishman would prompt him to do his duty on such an occasion.

Art. 42. ***Thoughts on Poor Houses,*** **with a View to their general Reform, particularly that of Salisbury, comparing it with the more improved ones of Shrewsbury, Isle of Wight, Hull, Boldre, &c. and Deductions drawn, useful to other Poor-Houses. To which is added, an Account of the Population of Salisbury, with Observations thereon. By Henry Wansey, F. A. S. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies.**

If the system of poor-houses must be continued, it is of great importance to construct them on good principles, and to exercise over them the most perfect superintendance. Mr. Wansey's Thoughts respect this point. He has examined the subject with care; and other towns besides Salisbury may benefit by his advice. Among many curious and important facts here exhibited, it appears that the population of Salisbury is, according to the late census, 6967;* -- that the poor's rate amounts to 7249*l.* or more than a guinea *per* head on every inhabitant of the city;—that this whole expence is sustained by 878 house-keepers (out of 1353, the rest being excused through poverty) averaging 8*l.* per house:—that of this sum of 7249*l.*, 2436*l.* are expended on the out-poor, leaving 4813*l.* for the expence of the House, in which the average number for the last three years has been 216. : that is, more than 22*l.* per annum for each pauper, over and above what is earned by his labour †. Attention may diminish this expence, but we fear that the system itself is radically bad; and that a new act on the old principles would only palliate, not remove, all the evils respecting the poor which exist in this country.

Art. 43. ***Remarks on the Situation of the Poor in the Metropolis,*** **as contributing to the Progress of Contagious Diseases; with a Plan for the Institution of Houses of Recovery, for Persons infected by Fever. Published by the Desire and at the Expence of the Society for bettering the Condition of the Poor. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard, Becket, &c.**

In populous cities, the indigent classes generally find very wretched accommodations. Where space is valuable, little is allotted to the poor, and that little is badly situated. They are crouded together in dark courts and narrow alleys, in cellars, or in garrets; where damps, stagnated air, and accumulated filthiness, injure their health, and facilitate the progress of contagious diseases. When fever makes its way into these receptacles of poverty, it is observed to maintain a durable and wide-wasting empire. This is a fact which medical men have ascertained to complete conviction; and perhaps in the metropolis, and other large cities, a plan similar to the institution here recommended is the only one which can be adopted: viz. to establish detached houses of recovery in airy situations, for the reception of fever patients, and to white-wash and cleanse their lodgings, so as to remove all remains of infection, before the patients return to them, or they are occupied by new lodgers. It is for the benefit of the rich that the poor should be healthy: for "*the Head cannot say to the Foot, I have no need of thee.*"

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* The population of Sarum appears to have continued the same for many years. In 1695, by a census then taken, it was 6976, in 1775 it was 6856. Mr. W. says that its population would decline fast, were it not for new settlers.

† There are other demands on the poor's-rate, besides the poor-house and out-poor: but, after every deduction, the charge is enormous.

The dedication of this benevolent pamphlet is subscribed *T. A. Murray, Greville Street.*

Art. 44. *Democracy the Cause of the present Dearth and Sufferings of the Poor.* By J. W. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wright.

Of all the assigned causes of the present high price of the necessaries of life, the one here suggested is the most curious, yet we doubt whether it merits a serious examination. Has Democracy shut up the Bank? Did it dictate the Duke of Portland's letter? Has it the command of the elements, the power of peace and war, or even a voice in the Corn Exchange? If by Democracy we are to understand not the supposed leaders of sedition, but the Mob, the idea is absurd in the extreme; for the populace, if it were prudent to allow its interference, would soon apply a remedy to the evil of dearness. The disaffected may be accused of fomenting the discontent of the people: but this is very different from their being the cause of it; and even here their success has been very inconsiderable, since not only Judges in their charges to grand juries, but even the late minister in the House of Commons, have complimented the people on their forbearance and peaceable disposition.

Art. 45. *Refutation of certain Misrepresentations relative to the Nature and Influence of Bank Notes*, and of the Stoppage of Issues in Specie at the Bank of England, upon the Prices of Provisions, as stated in the Pamphlets of Walter Boyd, Esq. and Mr. William Frend. By T. S. Surr. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Hurst.

Refutation is not the word which exactly belongs to the kind of counter-reasoning employed in this pamphlet; which displays more of carping and assertion than of argument, and in which the subject is by no means fairly met and discussed. It is not correct to mention 'the close connection which exists between this company (the Bank of England) and the *nation*;'—it is declamatory to tell Mr. F. that, before he compares paper-money in England with the paper-money of France, he should prove that the Chancellor of the Exchequer in England, and the Dictator Robespierre were synonymous terms;—and it is nugatory to inform us that there exists no power which can *command* an issue of Bank notes, when we all know that there is a *power* which has suspended the payment of them in specie. The simple questions here are; Cannot paper-money be created with more facility than the coinage of precious metals? Does not the stoppage of issues in specie at the Bank promote the creation of paper-money by that great company, and by the subordinate Banks? and Must not the facility, with which paper-money is created, necessarily operate to raise the price of provisions? Other Bankers are not restrained from dealing in provisions, if the Bank of England be; and the very competition of their paper in the market must produce the effect of advancing the price. Nor is this all:—but we must abstain from the discussion: suffice it for us to observe that, while we allow that it may have been politic in the minister to stop the issues of specie at the Bank, we cannot with Mr. Surr deem this circumstance a proof of the *actual prosperity* of the empire; nor subscribe to his assertion that it has produced no more effect on the prices of provisions, than 'the momentary transit of the smallest cloud between the earth and sun produces on the vegetation of our soil and the courses of our rivers.'

Art. 46. *A Few Reflections on Recent Events*, concluding with a Defence of Sir Hyde Parker's Convention with Denmark. By William Hunter, Esq. of the Inner Temple. 8vo. 1s. Stockdale. 1801.

Our conduct towards the Northern Confederacy is here applauded as not less magnanimous than successful; and the convention with Denmark, after the victory of Copenhagen, is justified on the score both of generosity and of policy.

Art. 47. *A Comparative View of the Public Finances*, from the beginning to the Close of the late Administration. By William Morgan, F. R. S. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Debrett.

This pamphlet is full of the most interesting matter, to every man of property in the country; to every man who has its welfare at heart; and to every one who wishes to make himself acquainted with its real state. Mr. M. has divided his remarks into six sections. The first treats 'on the additions which have been annually made to the public debt during the late administration;' and it states the whole capital of the debt created during Mr. Pitt's administration to be 331,881,816l.—The 2d discusses 'the comparative annual expenditure of the present and the two preceding wars,' making the *whole amount* of the *war establishment*, in the first five years of the present, and of the two preceding wars, to be—for the years 1755 to 1759, 43,962,072 l.—for the years 1778 to 1782, 87,992,557 l.—for the years 1793 to 1797, 129,204,824l.—The 3d chapter is 'a comparative view of the sums which have been funded, and of the taxes which have been imposed towards paying the interest on those sums during the present and the two preceding wars.' Here the ex-minister is accused of creating a needless capital, for which the country has never received an equivalent; and Mr. M. states the difference between the *money actually received* and the *stock created* during the present war to be 107,679,045 l.—The 4th section relates to 'the different expedients which have been employed for raising the supplies, and the ineffectual provisions which have been made for paying the interest of the debt incurred in the present war.' Under this head, Mr. M. endeavours to shew the *unsolidity* of Mr. Pitt's *solid* system of finance. —In sect. 5. he treats on 'the Consolidated Fund,' of which such use has been made by Mr. Pitt in opening his budgets: but it appears, by Mr. M.'s statements, that, in the course of five years, above ten millions have been raised to pay the difference between the *estimated* and the *real* surplus of this fund.—The last section considers 'the whole amount of the national debt, and the future peace establishment of the country.' What will the reader say, when he sees the national debt in April 1801 stated at 558,418,628L.; and is told that the interest on it and the unfunded debt, with charges of management, will require taxes to be annually raised to the amount of twenty-five millions; and that our future peace establishment will require the enormous annual sum of 31,745,833l.? Mr. M. indeed makes it to amount, when all items are included, to even more than this.

In contemplating Mr. Pitt as a financier, Mr. Morgan is of opinion that, if an inscription be made to his memory, it will not be on the *pillar* but on the *ruins* of Public Credit.

It is proper to add, that Mr. M.'s statements and computations are derived from the accounts of the revenue and expenditure laid before the House of Commons.'

Art. 48. *Remarks on Mr. Morgan's Comparative View of the Public Finances* from the Beginning to the Close of the late Administration. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Wright. 1801.

If Mr. Morgan "exerts all his energies" in reprobating the financial conduct of the late administration, he has here called forth in its defence a zeal and an energy equal to his own: but, though this gentleman, who professes himself to be the friend of Mr. Pitt, follows the author of the "Comparative View" through all his statements, ference is not calculated; and though it is farther remarked that the *bonuses* of lottery tickets, which have not been attached to any loan of this war, ought also to be taken into the account, no estimate of them is made.

Mr. M.'s account of deficiencies is denied; and on the subject of the Consolidated Fund, he is accused of attempting to lead his readers into error.

It is suggested in the "Comparative View," that it is probable that the Revenue will experience a considerable falling off in the event of a peace; to which we here find the following reply, not very consolatory to the purchasers of the Land-tax; 'There seems no reason to apprehend a deficiency in peace-time, when it is considered, that in the course of a few years the operation of the sale of the Land-tax will be sufficiently mature to facilitate the collection of a very considerable revenue by means of a new one.'

This may be a very cunning scheme, but can it be an honest one?

The sum-total of the debt, as stated by Mr. M., is allowed to be tolerably correct: but the remarker thinks that sufficient credit is not given to the late Minister for the singular provisions which he has made for liquidating it, and by which despondency ought to be removed.

The probable amount of the Peace Establishment is not here particularly calculated; the author only telling us that he 'conceives himself justified in saying that Mr. M. has exaggerated the amount of the interest on the public debt, funded and unfunded, to nearly two millions above its probable amount.' Supposing this to be the fact,—and we have little besides supposition for the conjecture,—the annual sum to be raised will be 30,000,000l.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 49. *Human Longevity*: recording the Name, Age, Place of Residence, and Year of the Decease of 1712 Persons, who attained a Century and upwards, from A. D. 66 to 1799, comprizing a Period of 1733 Years. With Anecdotes of the most remarkable. By James Easton. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Printed at Salisbury by the Author, and sold in London by White.

We do not perceive much use in the collection before us. Of the majority of the persons noticed in it, little is known; and the anecdotes of some of them, which have appeared in other works, are here very indifferently abridged. The editor seems, indeed, to be persuaded that long life is the greatest of human blessings, and that to have existed for a century is a sufficient distinction for any mortal. We would recommend to him Swift's chapter on the Struldbruggs, in Gulliver's Travels, and Juvenal's Xth Satire as correctives of this crude notion. Extreme old age is perhaps the most forlorn and desolate of all conditions. A person in this state becomes dependent on a new race, whose habits and opinions are totally different from his own, and who regard him as an incumbrance, and even as an usurper on the common course of nature. If the protracted existence of many individuals were marked by intellectual exertions, we should feel a strong interest in this subject: but Mr. Easton acknowleges that most of his *Macrobii* were farmers, labourers, and persons who lived, as he terms it, according to nature. Nothing can be learnt from the records of such vegetating existence.—Were we to regard this list of long-livers as complete, we should consider the investigation as still less important; for we see, from the very title-page, that they do not amount to one in a century: but if *two* persons in a century might be supposed to live to an hundred years of age, what can be deduced from the fact? Nothing, but a slight exception to a general rule.

On the whole, therefore, we cannot flatter Mr. Easton with the hope of *literary* longevity.

Art. 50. *Sequel to the English Reader:* or, Elegant Selections in Prose and Poetry. Designed to improve the Highest Class of Learners in reading; to establish a Taste for just and accurate Composition; and to promote the Interests of Piety and Virtue. By Lindley Murray. 12mo. pp. 376. 4s. 6d. bound. Longman and Rees. 1800.

Art. 51. *Introduction to the English Reader:* or, a Selection of Pieces in Prose and Poetry, calculated to improve the Younger classes of Learners, in reading, and to imbue their Minds with the Love of Virtue. With Rules and Observations for assisting Children to read with Propriety. By Lindley Murray. 12mo. pp. 210. 3s. 6d. bound. Longman and Rees. 1801.

Animated by the favourable reception of "the English Reader" (of which we gave a short account in vol. 29. p. 464. N. S.) Mr. Murray here pursues the same object, and has not only compiled a judicious and well-arranged supplement for the *higher* classes of learners, but, in order to complete his undertaking, has prepared an introduction to it for the *younger* classes. If there be a little apparent inversion of order in having the introduction *follow* the work and its continuation, we are to remember that it is not uncommon for the *approach* to a house and the *preface* to a book to be the last thing executed. We have no doubt that the public will be pleased with the additions to both the fronts of the original building; and, as the whole is so truly useful and well arranged, they will not be angry with Mr. M. because the several parts have not appeared in the regular order of time. Displaying a sound judgment, and actuated by the purest motives, this gentleman is indeed intitled to the fullest praise. In the preface to the *introduction*, he observes that 'care has been taken to render the language of all the pieces correct and perspicuous, that the young learner may improve in style as well as in reading, and insensibly acquire a taste for accurate composition.—To imbue the tender mind with a love of virtue and goodness, is an especial object of the present work; and with this view the pieces have been scrupulously selected, and where necessary, purified from every word and sentiment that could offend the most delicate mind.'

Such a compilation may be safely recommended, and put into the hands of youth; and the *rules and observations for assisting them to read with propriety* form to it a very suitable introduction. Mr. M.

endeavours to correct those errors which children are apt to commit, and gives some directions which (if observed) cannot fail to make good readers. They are short; and it would be of service to young persons if they would imprint them on their memory.

Art. 52. *The Power of Religion on the Mind, in Retirement, Affliction, and at the Approach of Death,* exemplified in the Testimonies and Experience of Persons distinguished by their Greatness, Learning, or Virtue. By Lindley Murray. The Tenth Edition, corrected and greatly enlarged. 12mo. 3s. 6d. bound. Longman and Co. 1801.

That "examples draw where precepts fail" is a truth which has been acknowleged in all ages and nations; and on the strength of this principle, Mr. Murray has had recourse to experience in evincing the power and importance of Religion. He has thus furnished an interesting collection of testimonies; and we wonder not that a work so instructive and amusing, as well as impressive, should have been generally patronized. It is a book which may be read with profit by persons in all situations; and with the rising generation it may answer the double purpose of improving them in biography and in virtue. This *tenth* edition is so augmented as to have become almost a new work. 'Twenty-two characters have been added, and a few passages of inferior importance have been curtailed. Almost every former piece has been augmented by explanatory matter, and the language throughout carefully corrected.'

The work is divided into ten chapters, each of which contains several biographical sketches; and to the whole is subjoined a serious conclusion, in which Mr. M. observes that 'the reader has been presented, in the preceding collection, with the testimonies and experience of a number of his fellow-creatures, of different periods, countries, professions, and situations in life; all uniting in their attestation to the power and excellence of true religion, as our surest guide and consolation through time, and the only means of securing eternal happiness.'

If Mr. Murray acquires not the highest literary fame by such publications, they do credit to the excellence of his heart, and prove him to be solicitous in promoting the best interests of man.

Art. 53. *An Appeal to the Public,* on the Controversy between Hannah More, the Curate of Blagdon, and the Rev. Sir A. Elton. By Thomas Bere, A M. Rector of Butcomb, near Bristol. 8vo. 2s. Robinsons. 1801.

In this his second publication, Mr. Bere vigorously defends himself against the attacks of Sir A. Elton: for which see M. Rev. for June, p. 215.—Unable as *we* are to decide in regard to the controverted *facts* on which the charges of misconduct are brought by the contending parties, we can speak of them only in the most general terms: but, at present, it appears to us somewhat more clearly, that Mr. B. has much reason for his complaints of injurious treatment. With respect to the *manner* in which he exerts his literary talents, (which are by no means inconsiderable,) we think that every candid reader of this tract will allow that his style and language, in general, are by no means inconsistent with those of a gentleman, and a scholar.

Art. 54. *A Statement of Facts relative to Mrs. More's Schools*, occasioned by some late Misrepresentations. 12mo. 6d. Cadell and Davies.

We have here a "cloud of witnesses," who, it may be presumed, have been called forth by Mr. Bere's above mentioned publications, and who unite in the exculpation of Mrs. More from the charge of encouraging the growth of Methodism, by the tenor of her conduct in the order and discipline of her Sunday Schools. The testimony of these witnesses is here laid before the public, in the form of Letters and Certificates from nine of the neighbouring Clergymen, of so many different parishes; all concurring in direct contradiction to the representations of the Curate of Blagdon and others. Particular notice is here taken of several alleged misrepresentations in Mr. B.'s *Appeal*, which are flatly denied.

Art. 55. *The Blagdon Controversy*; or, Short Criticisms on the late Dispute between the Curate of Blagdon and Mrs. Hannah More, relative to Sunday Schools, and Monday private Schools. By a Layman. 8vo. 1s. Robinsons.

This anonymous Layman assumes rather the tone and style of a legal advocate, than those of a theological investigator. His motive for standing forth, as a pleader in this cause, is thus expressed in the outset of his observations:

'The public curiosity having been much excited by what has passed at Blagdon, relative to Sunday Schools for children, and Monday private Schools for grown-up people, I have been induced to put together the following short observations, the result of deliberate judgment in a matter become a public concern, wherein all the parties engaged are equally strangers to me; I hope, therefore, that the opinion I have given will be found unbiassed by favour or affection on one hand, or by prejudice or dislike on the other.'

The writer exerts his abilities (which are not to be despised,) wholly on the part of Mr. Bere, and of those who adhere to his side of the general question. He speaks rather slightly of the literary merit of Sir A. E. and of the evidence of other champions of the opposite party; and he is of opinion that Mrs. More would have made a much better figure in the contest, had she employed her own talents in the maintenance of this very singular warfare. He adds that the event might have proved much more favourable to her literary reputation than it now promises to be, from the efforts of her apologists, who have *hurt* her cause by supporting it 'with more zeal than judgment;' and who 'have been mere panegyrists, in a matter which required plain statements of facts, and no ornaments or figures of speech.'

Art. 56. *A Letter to the Rev. T. Bere*, Rector of Butcomb. By the Rev. J. Boak, Rector of Brockley. 8vo. 4d. Hazard, Bath.

Mr. Boak is one of the nine Clergymen whose written testimonials in favour of Mrs. More's management of her Sunday Schools, &c. are inserted in the published *Statement*, &c. just noticed by us. The subject of this letter to Mr. Bere is the refusal of that gentleman to send a satisfactory answer to a preceding letter from Mr. Boak, relative

tive to the moral character of one of Mr. Bere's principal witnesses against one of Mrs. M.'s schoolmasters. This branch of the Blagdon controversy seems to be no otherwise interesting to the public, than as it may tend to weaken the power and force of Mr. Bere's exertions in support of his charges against Mrs. M.'s management of her popular institutions; and so far this little tract seems likely to produce some effect.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 57. *Preached before the University of Cambridge.* August 24, 1800. By Robert Luke, B. D. Fellow of Sidney Sussex College. 4to. 1s. Hurst.

This discourse is intitled, '*the necessity of union among Christians*:'—but we must confess that it breathes too much of the spirit of the High Priest to obtain our unlimited approbation. We observe some sensible and ingenious reflections in illustrating the idea of the church, under the figure of a *body*: but we are rather at a loss, on the whole, to perceive the writer's aim, or what beneficial instruction is to be derived from it. The latter part of his text (Eph. iv. 4, 5, 6,) seems to have gained very little if any of his attention.—The style is good, and free from that whimsical cast which might rather have been expected from the *epistle dedicatory* to the reader, which is composed in a style of formality and quaintness according with past rather than with present times.

Art. 58. *Preached before the University of Cambridge*, November 2, 1800. By Robert Luke, B. D. 4to. 1s. Rivingtons.

This discourse bears for its title, *The afflictions of England a warning from God.* The author writes with a very serious spirit; impressed, apparently to a high degree, by a view of his country's present distress, and the signs of the times. He offers some just and pertinent remarks concerning nations, considered as subjects of the divine moral government; which he briefly illustrates from Scripture history, combined with particular declarations and the general tenor of the sacred writings. Though, however, he writes sensibly, and with affection, we must acknowlege ourselves rather disappointed as we drew towards the conclusion: he calls on us, indeed, 'to be obedient to the laws both of church and state,' but he does not, as might be expected, recommend that stedfast integrity and virtue, founded on rational piety, which appear requisite for the peace and hope of individuals, and the welfare of society.

Art. 59. *On Romans, ch.* xiii. *v.* 8. "Owe no Man any thing;" preached before the University at Cambridge, in January, 1800. By George Whitmore, B D. Fellow and late Tutor of St. John's Colloge. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons.

The subject of this sermon seems very seasonable, truly momentous, and of great necessity. We therefore applaud the preacher who has pronounced and published it. 'There are many, we fear, in our public seminaries, and out of them, and in different ranks of society, who deserve the castigation and need the advice which are here bestowed; too many, we may add, who talk highly of generosity, honour, integrity, &c. yet have not themselves common honesty. The discourse is very respectfully and properly inscribed to the noblemen and gentlemen who were lately under the tuition of the author. Happy will it prove, if they, and all others among whom it may fall, have wisdom and resolution sufficient to give that attention to its precepts which they merit;—and which on some future day, if they now pay no regard to them, will be imperiously and painfully exacted.

How just and how worthy of serious thought, although not uncommon, is the remark here exhibited;—'He, who voluntarily spends more than he can afford, is dishonest, in exact proportion to his prodigality, whether his income rise to thousands, or depend on the daily exertion of his bodily strength.'—Again, how true the reflection, 'that, according to modern manners, it is not the cruel creditor, but the merciless debtor, we should complain of; and daily experience verifies the justness of the observation.'—Well does the preacher say to youth, especially in the seats of learning; 'without dignity of character, and propriety of couduct, the brightest acquirements in science serve only to render their possessors more illustriously contemptible.'

We can only farther observe that what is said, p. 9. concerning *personal utility* or private *happiness* may require rather more explication; a mere selfish principle would prove but an indifferent guide of human conduct.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The writer of a letter from Hoxton will find an answer in our *notices* of several *impatient* correspondents in our late Reviews.

We do not recollect ever to have heard of the work intitled *Matilda*.

In answer to an inquiry respecting a publication on Mineral Waters, we have to state that the book has been on our table some months, and will receive due attention at the first opportunity.

Mr. Ingram's letter, dated in July, reached us only a few days since, and too late for farther notice at present.

We must trespass farther on the patience of our learned Correspondent at Richmond, some unavoidable circumstances having delayed the consideration of his remarks.

A note has been sent to Dr. Montucci by the post.

A letter for the Editor of the plays of Lear and Cymbeline has been transmitted to his publishers, Messrs. Robinsons.

☞ The APPENDIX to Vol. XXXV. of the New Series of the MONTHLY REVIEW will be published with the Number for September next, and will contain a variety of important articles in FOREIGN LITERATURE, with the *General Title*, *Table of Contents*, and *Index* for the Volume.

APPENDIX

TO THE

THIRTY-FIFTH VOLUME

OF THE

MONTHLY REVIEW

ENLARGED.

FOREIGN LITERATURE.

Art. I. *Mémoire Historique sur la Vie et les Ecrits, &c. &c.* i. e. Historical Memoir on the Life and Writings of Horace Benedict de Saussure; designed as an Introduction to the Perusal of his Works. By Jean Senebier, Associated Member of the National Institute of Sciences and Arts, of several Academies and learned Societies, and Librarian at Geneva. Read before the Physical and Natural History Society of Geneva, in June 1800. 8vo. pp. 220. Geneva. 1801.

Few spots on the surface of the globe have acquired or have deserved such distinguished celebrity, as the little territory of Geneva. Situated in the bosom of a rich and highly romantic country, and enjoying a form of government calculated, with all its imperfections, to nourish the spirit of freedom, Nature and Institution seemed to conspire alike on that happy soil to warm the imagination, and to expand and invigorate the noble faculties of the mind. Even those frequent disputes, and factious contentions, which had their source in the narrow policy of the framers of the constitution, however unfavourable they were to domestic quiet, were yet on the whole conducive to energy of character. A watchful temper was kept alive; the merits of individuals were soon discovered and brought into notice; and the youths fired with emulation, were stimulated by the most powerful motives to cultivate those talents which would lead to distinction among their fellow-citizens. Genius, perhaps, is dispensed by the rare bounty of heaven : but all that education and example can effect was eminently conspicuous at Geneva. As the taste for reading and study pervaded every class, no where was useful information so widely diffused; even the artists themselves, being mostly engaged in the more ingenious mechanical professions, aspired with ardour to improve and refine their minds; and no city of equal extent, in modern times, has produced such a number of respectable literary characters. Nor have they wasted their time and faculties in barren erudition; since they have cultivated that species of learning which is directly applicable to the purposes of life, and which enlightens or embellishes the human character. Polite literature, and the more popular and captivating branches of natural science, have almost exclusively engaged their attention. The style of their compositions, also, seems to have derived its peculiar features from the circumstances in which they were placed. Patriotism, a passion most ardent in small free states, as it contracts the circle of its embrace, approaches to egotism and vanity. Hence that redundancy of expression, that amplification of ideas, and that continual affectation of sentiment and philosophy, which mark the productions of the Genevese.

The pamphlet now before us is a pregnant instance of the truth of the preceding remarks. M. SENEBIER, though respectable as a man of letters, writes in a most diffuse and inflated style, and seems for ever labouring to rise above his subject. It ought to be observed, however, in extenuation, that his discourse was read before a select body of his fellow-citizens, who, being intimately acquainted with the personal merits of the deceased, and deeply affected by the loss of such an eminent associate, were predisposed to sympathize with a tone of sentiment and mode of composition, which to the public at large will appear rhetorical, incongruous, and often extravagant. *Saussure* was certainly an ornament to Geneva, and intitled to the eulogies of his countrymen; and though his powers and attainments were not such as may raise him to the first rank of philosophers, he yet deserves a conspicuous niche in the Temple of Fame. Possessed of considerable ingenuity, regulated by a just taste and a clear and discriminating judgment, he devoted his fortune to scientific pursuits with unexampled ardour and perseverance. He displayed great sagacity in devising experiments; and the skill and precision, with which he conducted them, gave to the results a peculiar value:—but his geological observations will always be esteemed his capital performance. The patience and fortitude with which he surveyed the grand scenes of nature, the scrupulous accuracy of his remarks, unfettered and unbiassed by any hypothesis, and the lively colouring of his descriptions, deserve the highest praise; and the *Travels among the Alps* * are of themselves sufficient to render their author immortal.

Horace Benedict de Saussure † was born at Geneva the 17th of February 1740. His father is known by his agricultural writings and improvements. His mother, whose maiden name was *de la Rive*, had talents, and a taste for some parts of natural history. She was extremely solicitous to fortify his constitution by early accustoming him to endure cold, and to support hardships and privations: but it may be doubted whether this scheme of education succeeded, for *Saussure* seems never to have enjoyed robust health.—When only six years of age, he gained the prize of reading at the public school; an event which made a durable impression on his infant mind, and perhaps laid the germ of his ambition to excel in literature: while the marriage of his aunt with the celebrated naturalist, *Charles Bonnet*, produced a connection most favourable to the progress of his studies. *Bonnet* styled his young relation *Emilius*; and the name was afterward repeated by *Haller*, with whom he became acquainted in 1758, on the occasion of a visit which he made at Bex, with his mother, for the purpose of consulting that eminent physician respecting the state of her health. *Haller* was then employed in botanical researches; and the youth being led to imitate him by profound admiration, a correspondence on those subjects was commenced, which was afterward regularly maintained. In 1759, *Saussure* finished his course of philosophy, and printed a thesis or physical dissertation on Fire; in which, following Franklin, he related some experiments; and explained, in a clear neat manner, the property in substances of acquiring heat from the sun in proportion to their degrees of blackness.

Much conversation occurred at Geneva in 1760, respecting some English travellers who had visited the glaciers of Chamouni; which was considered at that time as an enterprize extremely bold and dangerous. The spirit of *Saussure* led him o despise such apprehensions; and, with the consent of his arents, he undertook and accomplished a journey which has since ecome so frequent and so fashionable. In that same year, the hair of Mathematics being vacant, he was advised by his friends appear as a candidate. In consequence, as he had studied this important science, and was even somewhat attached to it, he now resumed his application; and though he was unsuccessful, he acquitted himself at the examination with honour. Indeed, it was no mean praise to have disputed the palm of victory with such a rival as *Louis Bertrand*, a scholar of the great *Euler*.

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* See M. Rev. vol. lxv. p. 378. lxxvii. p. 532. Also *New Series*, l. xxii. p. 530. xxiii. p. 512.

† In the present work, this name is written uniformly *Desaussure*, compliance with the levelling fashion of France; in which vast reublic, Geneva is now finally absorbed.

Saussure now resumed the lighter studies, which were more congenial to him, and improved his taste by a careful perusal of the Greek and Latin poets. Yielding to his passion for botany, he discovered a material fact in the anatomy of plants, which he published, dedicating his work to *Haller*, under the title of "*Observations on the Bark of Leaves and Petals*;" a pamphlet which displays patience, accuracy, and address. This cortical netting had been confounded by all preceding observers with the epidermis.—In 1762, he obtained by competition the Professorship of Natural Philosophy at Geneva: a charge which he filled most usefully and creditably for the space of 24 years. His luminous mode of conveying instruction was enhanced by the charms of a graceful elocution: he was solicitous to establish his positions on a solid basis, and to separate truth from the glare of hypothesis: he was attentive to introduce all the new discoveries which were successively made in the several departments of natural science; and he discovered equal diligence and ingenuity in pointing out the application of the principles of philosophy to the practice of the arts, and the general business of life. Lectures so engaging could not fail to excite attention; they were frequented by all the youth of Geneva, and drew a conflux of strangers to that interesting place.

M. de Saussure had not long exercised the profession of a public teacher, when he fell desperately in love with Mademoiselle *Boissier*: but, though every thing seemed to favour the match, the period of their union was deferred by the relations of the young lady till she should have attained her 20th year. An anxious interval of two years was therefore passed; in which the desires, the hopes, and the fears of the lover were elevated to the utmost pitch. Books and science began to lose their relish; and he was tempted to resign himself to the delirium of indolent passion: but fortunately for him, this temper of mind was restrained within bounds by the uncommon exertions which he was obliged at that time to make in his public capacity. Besides his lectures in physics, he then gave a course of logic. Here his sound judgment and correct taste induced him to depart from the usual track; and discarding the miserable subtleties of scholastic pneumatology, he exhibited the art of reasoning in all its purity and simplicity.

At length, in 1765, *Saussure* was united to the object of his affections; and his domestic happiness henceforth increased every day. His wife's sisters, possessed (like herself) of beauty, virtue, and accomplishments, were married to *M. M. Turretini* and *Tronchin*; and the three families became inseparable.—An anecdote is here related which is highly honourable to the benevolent feelings of *Saussure*. A few days after his own marriage, and while that of *Turretini* was celebrating, chancing amid these joyous festivities to hear that his nurse's son was arrested as a deserter at la Roche, and about to be condemned to death, he snatched himself away, hastened thither, and pleaded so powerfully with the judges as to obtain a respite of the fatal sentence, which was afterward commuted for perpetual imprisonment.

The fruits of *Saussure*'s union were three children. His daughter, now Madame *Necker*, was a great favourite, and he bestowed infinite pains on her education. His elder son inherited the father's philosophical talents; and the younger was often his assistant, and always his comforter.

Electricity was much in vogue when our naturalist began his career. The subject was entirely suited to his taste; and he early distinguished himself by a dissertation in support of the Franklinian system, against the objections advanced by *Nollet*. He invented an electrometer, which he afterward improved into a convenient portable instrument, of great utility in his meteorological observations. Persuaded of the truth of the theory, plausible indeed, but perhaps groundless, he fixed a conductor to his house, and by degrees succeeded in introducing the use of these supposed safeguards into Geneva.

About this time, he formed the plan of travelling for the sake of improvement. He was ambitious to store his mind with the grand images of nature; and he was sensible how vivid and satisfactory is the information acquired from conversing with learned men in different countries, compared with that which is derived from the cold perusal of books. Accompanied by his wife and sisters-in-law, he set out for Paris in 1768. There he devoted his mornings to visiting the literati, and attending some courses in chemistry and experimental philosophy; and he spent his evenings in fashionable society. After some time, he left that capital with regret, proceeded through Flanders to Holland, and arrived in the month of July at Amsterdam. He viewed the cabinets and collections of curiosities in the different cities; and, notwithstanding the phlegm of the Dutch character, so strongly contrasted with the vivacity of his own, he was cordially received by the *Sçavans*: but the climate of Holland affecting his health, he was obliged to embark for England, where he arrived about the middle of September.

tember. At that season, he found London almost entirely deserted, and therefore made an excursion into Cornwall, to visit the mines. On his return to the metropolis, he was seized with a dangerous putrid sore throat; and he had scarcely recovered, when, going to view a glass-house, he was taken with a sudden relapse, attended with very alarming symptoms. From this second attack, however, he escaped: but his constitution suffered a severe shock. He resolved, therefore, to return home; and arriving at Paris about the beginning of 1769, he rested a few days, and then pursued his journey to Geneva. His short and inauspicious stay in England was, however, beneficial to his studies. He enriched his cabinet, saw the curiosities recently brought from the South Seas, examined the treasures of the British Museum, and formed an acquaintance with some ingenious men, among whom were Franklin and Garrick.

Though his health was far from being re-established, the Professor continued to give lectures: but, as his complaints became more complicated and obstinate, he was advised by his friends to try the beneficial effects of the climate of Italy. In 1772 he accordingly began the journey, accompanied by his wife and their little daughter. With difficulty he reached Turin: but he now mended quickly, and was able to prosecute his tour; travelling with the eyes of a philosopher, an antiquary, and a man of taste. Having traversed Tuscany, visited the isles on the shores of the Mediterranean, and passed some days within the antique walls of Volterra, he arrived at Rome; that spot so dear to every person who is in the smallest degree tinctured with erudition, or smitten with the love of the fine arts! During his stay in that venerable city, *Saussure* contracted a particular intimacy with the celebrated Father *Jaquier*, the commentator on Newton; and with Cardinal *de Bernis*, celebrated as a man of wit. The cold weather having obliged him to retire to Naples, he was delighted with its delicious climate, and with the novel aspect of a volcanic country. The conformity of tastes and studies produced an intimate friendship between him and Sir William Hamilton; and under the guidance of that experienced observer, he surveyed the Phlegræan fields, and ascended Mount Vesuvius. This was the happiest period in his life; when such a flood of ideas poured on his mind, when every thing combined to touch the heart, to invigorate the understanding, and to animate and extend the imagination.—He made some stay with his family in the isles of Ischia and Procida; where the manners and customs of the inhabitants recalled to his mind the Homeric pictures of the antient Greeks. He then embarked for Sicily, and landed at Palermo in the beginning of May. From Catana he descried the snowy top of Ætna; his fancy was kindled; and he determined to ascend that famous mountain. On the 5th June 1773, he reached its lofty summit: but it is more easy to conceive than to describe his feelings, when he stood on that commanding elevation, or approached the brink of the tremendous crater. By barometrical measurement, he ascertained the height above the sea to be 10,963 English feet.—Returning to Naples, he found some letters which induced him to hasten his departure. He then passed through Rome to Venice, where he stopped a short while, and formed an acquaintance with the very ingenious Father *Boscovich*; and taking the route by the Tyrol, he arrived at Geneva in the end of August.

The impression, which the awful scenes of Vesuvius and Ætna had made on his mind, determined M. *de Saussure* henceforth to devote himself to the study of geology; and with that view he performed annual journies among the Alps, crossing them in various directions, and examining their structure with scrupulous and repeated attention. He found time also for other pursuits, and for the discharge of the active duties of humanity. In the concerns of his friends and of his native city, he took the warmest interest; and for several years he held offices of trust, which he filled with singular zeal and ability. He was particularly anxious to improve the education of youth; and in 1774 he published a project for reforming the schools at Geneva. Convinced that all knowlege is obtained through the medium of the senses, he advised preceptors to gain the attention of pupils by presenting to them a series of connected facts and palpable objects; and, instead of oppressing their memory with unprofitable tasks, he sought to habituate them to the early exercise of their judgment. How far his schemes were adopted, we are not informed.

About this time, appeared the description of the *Helio-thermometer*, one of *Saussure*'s most ingenious contrivances. Having remarked the heat accummulated under a glass frame placed in the sun, he thought of a simple mode of multiplying the effect. He obtained five square cases of plane glass, regularly diminishing in size, and included one within the other, with an interval of two inches: the inmost case acquired a heat of 70 degrees of Reaumur; and by proper precautions even 88 degrees, equal to 230 by Fahrenheit's scale. An apparatus of this sort he proposed for domestic and culinary uses.

It was in 1783, while slowly recovering from a severe illness, which prevented him from undertaking his annual excursion into the Alps, that *Saussure* prepared his celebrated *Essays* *on Hygrometry* *; a work of rare and original merit, though certainly not deserving the superlative praise bestowed on it by his biographer. The hair hygrometer, or rather hygroscope, excells every preceding instrument of that sort in sensibility, exactness, and range. The numerous experiments, instituted with the view of ascertaining the affections of air and moisture, were most judiciously planned, and were executed with unrivalled delicacy and circumspection. His theories, which are but sparingly introduced, may not deserve equal encomiums; yet his fanciful notion of the existence of aqueous vesicles finds many adherents. The repeated strictures of his rival and countryman, M. *de Luc*, drew from him in 1788 an answer, which betrayed considerable acrimony. An indifferent spectator might smile to see grave philosophers so keenly disputing the respective merits of hair and of whale-bone.

In this place, we cannot forbear to observe that our own island has the credit of having at last produced a complete hygrometer, founded on demonstrative principles; an acquisition of vast importance in the infant science of meteorology. From the concise and abstract manner in which the inventor has chosen to state his proposition, we apprehend, however, that it is by no means generally or rightly understood. On a popular subject, Mr. Leslie has evinced a closeness of reasoning which rarely occurs beyond the domains of the mathematical sciences. By developing the process of evaporation, he distinguishes the true and sole cause which determines the degree of cold produced. On that simple principle, is the instrument constructed: but the idea of two counteracting balls is singularly happy, and appears to be capable of very extensive application. Hints to that effect we have observed in Mr. Nicholson's Philosophical Journal; where we also have seen a very curious paper on the absorbent powers of earthy substances, in ascertaining which the new hygrometer is successfully used. The several earths, it seems, have, in common with the saline bodies, the property in different degrees of attracting moisture from the atmosphere; those compounds which constitute mould have it to a great extent; and it is wonderfully augmented by the practice of cultivation. Some light may thus be thrown on the abstruse subject of vegetation; and a simple mode is afforded for ascertaining, with precision, the relative goodness of different soils. When such a prospect is opened, we cannot doubt that the new hygrometer will in time come into general request; and form, like the thermometer, an essential part of philosophical furniture.

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* See M. Rev. vol. lxxi, N. S. p. 213.

The *Essays on Hygrometry* appeared at the time when all Europe was astonished and delighted by the recent discovery of air-balloons; and the author went to Lyons in the beginning of the year 1784, to see *Montgolfier*, and witness the triumph of that ingenious artist. Balloons were at first filled with smoke which was believed to contain a peculiar sort of very light gas: but M. *de Saussure*, with more sagacity, ascribed the ascensional effect merely to the rarefaction of the included air occasioned by the great heat; a position which he proved on his return to Geneva, by shewing that the vapour extricated in the burning of straw or paper is actually denser than common air.

In 1790, was published the description of the *Cyanometer*; an elegant contrivance for ascertaining the depth of the blue colour of the sky. The object of the *Diaphanometer*, which appeared at the same time, was to measure the quantity of vapours floating between the eye and the bounds of the distant horizon. His portable *Anemometer* was another instrument, with which this ingenious philosopher enriched meteorology. It consisted of a pendulous surface, which marked the force of the wind by its degree of deflection from the vertical position.

Among the various objects to which the inquiries of *Saussure* were directed in his Alpine journeys, one of the most curious and valuable was to ascertain the temperature at different depths in the ground: but it is to be lamented that it had not occurred to him to measure the heat of springs or wells; which, where they can be found, afford results incomparably easier and more exact. During the last five years of his life, he observed at the bottom of a pit 30 feet deep, (from which the access of air was excluded,) that the greatest height of the thermometer was 52°, and the lowest $48\frac{1}{2}$°. The mean temperature is precisely what we should expect for the latitude and elevation of Geneva:—but such is the slowness with which the heat penetrates from the surface, that the thermometer did not reach its maximum till summer, nor sink to its minimum till winter.—The excessive cold, which prevails at the bottom of deep lakes, is a very remarkable and interesting fact, discovered by M. *de S.* He found the temperature, at the bottom of most of the Swiss lakes,—some of which have the prodigious depth of 160 fathoms,—to be about 41 degrees of Fahrenheit's scale; while the temperature of the Mediterranean Sea, near Cape *della Causa*, at the depth of 1900 fathoms, was $54\frac{1}{2}$°. He contents himself with stating the facts, without pretending to assign the cause; and though we think it would be easy to give a satisfactory explanation of that singular phænomenon, we shall waive the consideration of it at present.—The observations of this naturalist on the periodical variations of the temperature of the Arve are very curious, but the recital of these also we must omit.

The first volume of the *Travels among the Alps* appeared in 1779, the second in 1786, and after a lapse of some years, the two remaining volumes were published in (1796)*. A great portion of his life was spent in procuring and digesting the materials of that elaborate work; and the patience and fortitude, which he displayed in the prosecution of the plan, were truly wonderful. Leaving his plentiful home and the sweets of domestic society, he submitted to forego every comfort and accommodation; encountered danger and fatigue in a variety of shapes; and clambered or even sojourned among savage heights, exposed to the piercing influence of a cold and often tempestuous atmosphere. He marked the contours of the Alpine chains, and examined the nature and arrangement of their mineral strata. With nice discrimination, he detected those transitions which are so important in geology. Tracing the changes and decompositions of the mineral bodies, he sought by degrees to remount to their origin. His observations were likewise extended to meteorology and general physics; and with the view of executing a number of interesting experi-

Besides the regular tours which this active naturalist performed among the mountains of Switzerland and Piedmont, and of Savoy, he undertook a journey to examine others of a different character; and traversing the country which extends from Basle to Limbourg, he marked the vestiges of extinct volcanoes in the Brisgaw. Diligent and cautious, however, as he was in collecting geological facts, he could not always resist the temptation of attempting to connect them by some hypothesis. M. SENEBIER mentions having seen two of his projects for a theory of the earth, the one written in 1784 and the other in 1796. Nevertheless, he was too prudent, and too mistrustful of their solidity, to give them to the public; and he possessed that rare coolness and self-denial which enabled him to relinquish them, whenever an irreducible phænomenon occurred.

Prompted by liberal and patriotic motives, he procured in 1776 the establishment of a society, the object of which was the application of the principles of philosophy to the improvement of the arts. Of that body, composed of ingenious artists and of kindred men of science, he was generally president or vice-president; and he took a very active concern in its business. In this capacity, he was much consulted respecting various schemes of public utility. It having been found impracticable to erect wind-mills in the neighbourhood of Geneva, on account of the sudden squalls which arise from its peculiarly confined situation in the gap of an immense amphitheatre of mountains, he sought to obviate these destructive effects; and a presented to the society the plan of a sort of horizontal wind-mill, with vanes to open and shut as it revolved.

Saussure possessed a handsome fortune, and lived in a style of affluence. He had formed a very choice cabinet, and an extensive library, particularly rich in books of botany and natural history. Generally beloved and esteemed at home, his spreading reputation procured him increasing respect abroad; and he was adopted by most of the foreign Academies and learned societies. Strangers who resorted to Geneva were proud of his acquaintance; and in 1778 he received a visit from the Emperor Joseph, who was then on his tour. He continued to give lectures until 1786, when he resigned that charge to his disciple, the ingenious *Pictet*: but the period of calm enjoyment, which resulted from his retirement, was of short duration. The political storm, which had been gathering for years, at last burst with tremendous fury; and, from its vicinity to France, the little state of Geneva felt, with peculiar aggravation, the direful effects of the Revolution. The opulent families, having for the most part vested their property in the French funds, were plunged in ruin; and the lower classes became triumphant, and abused their newly-acquired authority. M. SENEBIER is silent on this head, but *Saussure* was perhaps obnoxious on account of his known political attachments. Under the influence of his relation *Bonnet*, he began life by espousing the popular side, which is so powerfully attractive to the ardour and generosity of youth: but his taste and habits soon inclined him to join the party of the aristocracy, to which he afterward adhered. He appears, however, to have acted with moderation in the frequent convulsions which had agitated Geneva, and had occasioned the expulsion of so many valuable citizens. The distressful state both of private and public affairs now preyed on his spirits, and his health declined every day. He tried the waters of Aix, of Bourbon, L'Archambault, and of Plombières, but without deriving any sensible benefit. In the year 1794, he had a slight attack of the palsy, from which he recovered: but this was only the prelude to a tedious and fatal distemper, which brought him to his last moments on the 3d of Pluviose, VIIth year (21st Feb. 1799.) All Geneva testified its sorrow for this event by a public mourning; and the society, of which he was the founder, directed that his picture, painted by a very eminent artist, should be hung up in the hall of their meetings.

In his person, M. *de Saussure* was tall, and well proportioned; his countenance was agreeable; his eyes were sparkling and expressive; and he had often that air of careless ease which gains our confidence. His conversation was animated, eloquent, and attractive.

Sensible of this philosopher's misfortunes, and of his high deserts, the Directory of the French Republic had conferred a pension on him, on the publication of the last two volumes of his great work. Not many weeks after his death, also, *Bonaparte*, in the famous march across the Alps for the re-conquest of Italy, halted some days at Geneva, and, with the General officers, paid the most respectful attention to his widow; endeavouring, by every solacement, to assuage the bitterness of her grief.

ART. II. *Histoire Critique de l'Etablissement des François dans les Gaules*, &c.; *i. e.* A Critical History of the Establishment of the French in Gaul; an inedited Work of the late President HENAULT, of the French Academy, and of that of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres. 8vo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1800. Imported by De Boffe, London, Price 10s. sewed.

ON reading this title-page, which asserts that the work was the performance of a very celebrated writer, without producing any voucher for the declaration, it is natural to ask several questions. Did these volumes really come from the pen of him whose name they bear? If they did, why have they been so long withholden from the public eye? What determined their appearance at the present moment? In whose hands was the precious deposit intrusted; and under whose inspection is it now ushered into light? These inquiries, it must have been expected, would arise from the circumstances of the case; and it is reasonable that they should be resolved: but such an expectation has been wholly disregarded by the editors; who have not affixed a single sentence to satisfy the doubts, or remove the suspicions, which the reader may entertain concerning the authenticity of these pages. They are left, therefore, to establish their claim by internal evidence; and by this testimony, in our opinion, they may safely abide, since they appear to us to bear every mark of this sort, which the most scrupulous reader would require. Though we were surprised at the omissions which we have noticed, and were indeed rendered sceptical by such acircumstance, yet, having perused the volumes, we have no doubt of the truth with which they are ascribed to the late President HENAULT. That full possession of the subject, that sound judgment, that nice accuracy and rich conciseness, and those peculiarities of style and sentiment, which mark the other labours of that excellent man, are here equally conspicuous.

The foundations of the early history of France are more clearly exposed to our view than those of any other of the modern kingdoms of Europe. The barbarians, under whose yoke that country fell, first obtained a footing in it as the subjects, and then as the allies of the empire. During this connection, they made considerable advances towards civilization, and became Christians. Several of the provinces, which had retained their dependance on Rome till its fall, did not submit till this change had been wrought; and, in some instances, their subjection was less brought about by force of arms than by treaties, which left them in possession of most of their rights and privileges. The conquerors adopted their religion, permitted them to be governed by their own laws, recognized the distinctions of rank which prevailed among them, and did no violence to their usages and manners. Hence those confusions did not happen which history is unable to unravel, and which render the intervals between one period and another a barren waste; and this is the reason why France is richer than most states, in materials for illustrating its origin. Its pre eminence in this respect, however, has not been confined solely to this circumstance; since its materials have been more nicely examined, more attentively sorted, and more judiciously arranged, than those of any other country. If no rival states can boast a Christian historian so ample and useful as *Gregory* of *Tours*, (with all his weaknesses,) nor so great a store of codes and capitularies, less can they lay claim to inspectors of them so judicious and able as *De Valois*, *Boulainvilliers*, *Dubos*, *Montesquieu*, *Mably*, and HENAULT. The clear point of view, in which every part of early French history has been placed, is not owing solely to the industry which distinguished these eminent individuals, but to exertions which the zeal of controversy called forth; and by which every corner of French antiquity has been ransacked, every object minutely surveyed, and every inference drawn and reflection made, which can add to the light thrown on those remote times.

In these particulars, our own country has been less fortunate than its neighbour. The interval between the expulsion (or rather the extirpation) of the antient inhabitants, and the prevalence of civilized institutions among the conquerors, is all chaos; and the materials, which have reached us, have not passed the ordeal of the best criticism, nor been thrown into proper method. Attempts of this kind, indeed, have been made, which call for our gratitude; and which would render comparatively easy the labours of a profound lawyer, who united to professional knowlege a due portion of literature, and a spirit of critical research.

Those of our readers, who are deeply conversant in modern history, are aware that the controversies, to which we have above alluded, turn on the points of the first establishment of the Franks in Gaul; the manner in which their king Clovis acquired the possession of several of the provinces at that time in obedience; (that is, which remained in subjection to the empire;) whether the Franks were taxed as the Gauls were; what the authority was with which their first kings were invested; and whether there was more than one order among them, i. e. whether there was any distinction of ranks among the freemen of this tribe.

The President HENAULT agrees with the Abbé *Dubos*, and the other antiquaries and historians who regard the Franks as the same people with the antient Sciambic, and the more modern Salians; who date their establishment in Gaul from the reign of the Emperor Constance, as early as the year 351; and who have assigned to them, as the place of their habitation, the country then called the Isle of the Batavians, (a part of modern Holland): where they resided first as subsidiaries of the empire, next as allies more or less independent, and at length completely emancipated themselves, reducing to subjection the provinces which adjoined them, and finally overrunning the whole of Gaul.

On the question, Whether it was by arms or by treaty that Clovis made himself master of the Roman provinces? (i.e. those which were subject to Rome,) the present author steers a middle course, and seems to have truth on his side. He agrees with the very learned and ingenious Abbé, that Clovis did not become master of Gaul by conquests similar to those of Alexander and Gengis; and he highly extols the manner in which the Abbé has set forth the assistance rendered to Clovis by the Catholic Bishops: but he dissents from him, when, allowing nothing to the dread of the conqueror's arms, he ascribes all to negociation and address. The learned Abbé maintained that the Franks of the Provinces in obedience were in no way favoured above the Gauls, but that the former paid all the taxes to which the latter submitted; and here also the President decidedly differs from, and (as we think) completely refutes him.

On the debate whether the Franks recognized a class of nobles, without at all discussing it, the author seems, in opposition to *Montesquieu*, and all the more antient writers, as well as to what he has advanced himself in his excellent *Abridgment*, to coincide with the opinions of *Dubos*, *Boulainvilliers*, and *Mably*. He treats, as most others have done, the paradoxes of the able and spirited *Boulainvilliers*; who, it is well known, wrote his work to shew that Gaul belonged to the Franks by right of conquest; that the inhabitants became the slaves—the absolute property—of the invaders; that the leaders of the same invaders were rather chiefs than kings; that the conquests belonged to the nation, and not to its chiefs, (who came in like the rest only for their share); and that France was in its original constitution an aristocratic republic. The President, in this work, as in his *Abridgment*, shews himself a good French subject, as well as a good Catholic; contending, every where, that the right of making laws was an antient inherent prerogative of the French crown; and treating as heretics all those, without distinction, who withdrew from the pale of the Roman church.

We shall now select a few miscellaneous articles from these interesting volumes.

The Breviary of the empire, i. e. the state of it, drawn up by the orders of Augustus; which set forth all its sources and its means, the citizens and allies which it had under arms and which it could arm in addition, its fleets, its kingdoms, its provinces, its revenues, and its expences; and which taught the Gauls that their liberty was at an end, that their persons, their families, and their fortunes were at the absolute disposal of a foreign master; informs us that over the whole of Gaul there was a Governor-General, who was also Commander in

Chief. The provinces were subdivided, and the lowest dependency had relations which connected it with the supreme authority. The smaller towns might have recourse to the city, the city to the metropolis, and the metropolis to the first of the order, the residence of the Prefect, who communicated immediately with the Emperor.

After the barbarian conquests, the rank of the Gallo-Roman senators was preserved to them; and the clergy were all taken from among the conquered people. These two circumstances must have greatly ameliorated their condition.

The people of Brittany, as the Western empire was about to sink, deriving no protection from it, formed themselves into an independent state; which remained to the days of Clovis, who gained part of its territory by conquest; and who left the remainder to the antient inhabitants, on the condition of their becoming his subjects. On the expulsion of the Roman magistrates, their bishops are said to have exercised the leading civil functions in the government. This account shews that in this district the curious are to look for the most pure remains of the antient Celts; and the resemblance between their national character, as described by a late writer, and that of the antient Britons in our island, farther confirms such an idea.

The discovery of the tomb of Childeric at Tournay, in the year 1663, brought to light a fact which has been much discussed in the controversy relating to the first establishment of the Franks in Gaul. We here insert the following observations made on it by the Abbé *Dubos*:

> " The circumstance of the tomb being on the great road does not prove that the city did not belong to Childeric. The Franks buried him without the walls of Tournay, conformably to the usage of the Romans, who never interred the dead within the precincts of their cities. The edict of Theodoric king of the Ostrogoths, prohibiting, under severe penalties, the interment of the dead within cities, proves that the Romans of the sixth century were as averse as their ancestors from this practice. Even the earlier bishops of Tours, of Paris, and of other dioceses of Gaul, were not interred in their cathedrals, which lay within the cities, but in places without the walls; where, indeed, churches were afterward erected."

How much would the healthiness and comfort of cities and towns be consulted, if we could be contented with being as little superstitious, in this respect, as the Christians of the sixth century!

When proceeding to state summarily the coincidences and differences between his notions and those of the Abbé *Dubos*, the President says:

'This author, after having maturely reflected on the new ideas which he had formed concerning the enterprize of the founder of our monarchy, has admirably employed all the authorities which he collected for the support of his system. The collection of *Duchesne* was the mine from which he obtained his treasures: but it was reserved for him thence to draw truths which had escaped the eyes of all his predecessors. His own immense reading had prepared him for these grand discoveries. We have only to regret that so great a work should be left imperfect. What light would he not have thrown on all that belongs to our public law!

'We have more than once observed that, new as is the system of the Abbé *Dubos*, other authors had before taken parts of it. But it is not sufficient to perceive the truth; it must be seized, recognized, fixed, rendered our own; we must, as it were, declare its existence, and have the courage not to abandon it when once we are certain that we have discovered it. In order to this, the ideas must be precise; we must not suffer ourselves to be carried away by a torrent of authorities; nor lose sight of our object till we have brought others to discern it. Thus has the learned Abbé acted: if his views may be called in question, at least it cannot be denied that he reasoned consequentially; and that he has given information to those who do not submit to his conclusions.

'One of the circumstances which has most struck me, in his work, has been the utility of which the Bishops proved to Clovis; and the advantage which he made of the need in which they stood of him, in order to serve the purposes of religion. This brings to my remembrance a reflection which I have often made respecting Luther and Calvin, and which applies in part to the present subject.

'I have thought that Calvin saved the Catholic religion at the time of the Reformation: this looks like paradox, but it is nevertheless true. Assuredly, such was not the intention of this new sectary: but, in wishing to add to the reform of Luther, he made it appear how far persons might be carried, when once they suffered themselves to be guided by their own proper light; and thus, without intending it, he undeceived persons who had been overwhelmed by the appearance of reasonableness, which the doctrine of Luther at this time assumed.'

This topic, often discussed by Catholic writers, has never been so ably treated as by the incomparably eloquent pen of the Bishop of Meaux, in his *Histoire des Variations des Eglises reformées*.

The President then goes on to shew that the success of Clovis was owing to the Arianism of the Ostrogoth, Visigoth, and Burgundian kings.—Clovis, it is true, was at this time a Pagan, but he always shewed great deference to the Catholic Bishops. The holy Prelates, we are told, were of opinion that a Pagan was more reclaimable than a Heretic; and the presumption of these august persons, we believe, was founded in experience, and was completely justified by the event. At the period of the baptism of Clovis, we are informed that he was the only orthodox Prince in Christendom; great doubts being entertained respecting the orthodoxy of the Greek Emperor;—and hence the right of the kings of France to the title of *eldest sons of the Church.* This and another circumstance, namely, the formal surrender of the Imperial claims on Gaul, made by Justinian to the sons of Clovis, with the ratification of its independence by the same Prince, (by which the French monarchy derives its rights from the Roman Empire), are related at length, and with particular satisfaction, by this catholic and legal historian.—Those who are fond of discovering Parallelisms in history will trace many points of resemblance between the conversion of Clovis and that of Constantine.

In conclusion, we may repeat our opinion that this publication will not lessen the fame of the highly eminent author to whom it is attributed. It should therefore be received with gratitude; and it will form a very proper introduction to the *Abrégé Chronologique.* The reader will here find, collected together within a narrow compass, the substance of those very curious and interesting controversies which, in the last ages, excited so much attention among our neighbours; and which reflected so much credit on the literature, and the spirit of criticism, which at that time prevailed in the kingdom of France.

ART. III. *Aperçu Statistique des Etats de l'Allemagne,* &c. *i. e.* A Statistical View of the States of Germany, with respect to their Extent, Population, Productions, Industry, Commerce, and Finances. By JOHN DANIEL ALBERT HOECK, Counsellor of Justice to the King of Prussia, &c. Published in French by *Ad. Duquesnoy.* Folio. sewed. Paris. 1801. Imported by De Boffe. London. Price 1l. 5s.

IF the potentates of Europe do not sedulously cherish that love of peace which the gospel inculcates, they cannot be accused, while meditating war, of neglecting the wise policy of *counting* their respective strength and resources. Political arithmetic, indeed, is become a prevalent object of attention:—in most countries, the people are numbered;—and their property, together with the value of their talents and industry, is nicely calculated. It is not surprizing that statesmen should be solicitous of obtaining these estimates, for they include important knowlege: but, while it is obvious that wise and benevolent rulers will make good use of such information, it is to be lamented that this is a species of knowlege which has a tendency to inspire the directors of powerful empires with a pride and an ambition, which may be fatal to the tranquillity if not to the very existence of the smaller states. The philosopher derives satisfaction from contemplating such statistical views as the Tables now before us present, because they are calculated to excite the powers of his fellow-creatures in their respective districts, and to convince them of the mutual advantages which countries may derive from an exchange of their productions. He may also flatter himself with the hope that the time will come, when men will everywhere be convinced of the policy of peace; and instead of waiting for an opportunity of "letting slip the dogs of war" on each other, will combine their efforts to promote a general diffusion of the blessings which Providence has poured on separate districts of the globe. Without encouraging romantic expectations, we may be permitted to wish that statesmen would contemplate the extent, population, and productions of countries, as immense powers of doing good; and that human beings might be numbered and valued only for laudable purposes.

It may be suspected that the French have some selfish motive in ascertaining the political strength and resources of the German States; though the editor of these Tables pretends to offer them to his countrymen only as a stimulus, and a model, to those who are employed in taking statistical views of France. He speaks of this investigation as the most useful in which a citizen can be employed; and he observes that, as the Germans and the English have given such exact and detailed accounts of their empires, his countrymen should be incited to the same study: particularly as France possesses riches of every kind in such abundance, that the knowlege of them must augment at once their happiness and their patriotism.

These Tables contain statistical views, I. Of the Hereditary States of the House of Austria, on three separate sheets. II. The Prussian States, on four. III. The Ecclesiastical States, on five. IV. The antient Principalities, on ten. V. The new Principalities and Counties of the Empire, on four. VI. The Imperial Cities, on five.

Beneath the title of each Table, are given the sources or authorities from which it is compiled; and the Tables themselves are so divided into distinct columns, as to present at one view the names of the countries,—their extent in square miles,—the number of cities, towns, and villages—of houses,—of each sex, as well as the total of the population,—the productions,—industry,—commerce, subdivided into exportation, importation, and balance,—and the finances, literature, and military establishment. Thus the Kingdom of Bohemia is tated to contain $962\frac{1}{2}$ square miles, 250 cities, 308 market owns, 11,455 villages, 430,000 houses, 1,340,510 men, 1,466,433 women; total of population 2,806,493. Under the head of natural productions, we find that

Bohemia had in 1787.	acres.	sq. toises.
1. Of ploughed land - -	3,609,360	776
2 Ponds - - -	69,115	1,373
3. Fields - - - -	220,136	1,395
4. Meadows - - -	798,393	1,066
5. Gardens - -	85,712	711
6. Marshy ground (*étangs empl. comme prairies*)	65,515	970
7. Pastures and heaths - -	613,131	1,209
8. Vineyards - - -	4,482	672
9. Woods - - -	2,319,811	557
Total	7,783,660	8,738

The examined account (*l'état contrôlé*) of the territorial produce of grain, forage, vines, woods, and rivers, amounted in 1789 to 30,057,939 florins.

Of cattle there were in 1771,—9,789 oxen, 2,338 bulls, 9,688 cows, 2,723 calves, 8,452 sheep, 16,738 hogs, 564 he-goats, 2,758 she-goats, 533 asses.

The produce of grain amounted to 2 millions of minots (a minot is equal to 3 bushels) of wheat, 10 millions of minots of

Merchandise of Lyons, Liqueurs, Silks, Hungarian cattle, to the value of 800,000 florins, and Wine to the value of 500,000 florins.

The balance of trade is said to be in favour of the country.

Under the title of *Finances*, *Military Establishment*, *and Literature*, we are informed that the revenues of the state are 15 or 16 millions: but that the expences are so high, that, out of this sum, the surplus amounts only to 636,000 florins;—that the contribution in 1789 was 3,646,017 florins, and the tax on the Jews 216,006 florins;—and that the annual revenue from the domains of the crown was, during the life of Maria-Teresa, 332,780 florins; these domains are now estimated at 177,774 acres.

The number of Soldiers to be furnished by Bohemia in time of peace is 54,964; in time of war, 76,896.

The kingdom possesses one University, 12 *gymnasia*, 2,219 German schools, 200 schools of industry, and 33 ladies' schools.

In this manner, the Statistics of Germany are delineated, and brought under the eye on a single sheet of paper; and if these Tables be executed with accuracy, they must be of singular use not only to the politician but to geographical writers,—especially to those who are employed in compiling dictionaries and gazetteers. It occurred to us, while examining this work, that it would furnish a very eligible model, on which, when our agricultural reports are completed, a statistical view of Great Britain might be formed with great conciseness and convenience of consultation. By such a method, the population of countries is easily reckoned and compared.

From the three Tables which give a view of the Hereditary States of the House of Austria, it appears that

		Persons.	
Table I.	Bohemia contains -	2,806,493	
	Moravia -	1,256,240	
	The Dutchy of Silesia	250,000	
			—4,312,733
Table II.	Lower Austria -	1,820,000*	
	Interior Austria	1,645,000	
	Superior Austria, or the Tirol	610,000	
	Anterior Austria	293,433	
	Rovereit and the Vorarlberg	77,971	
			—4,446,404

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* Vienna, the capital of the Austrian dominions, and which is situated in lower Austria, is said in 1794 to have contained 221,775 inhabitants.

Table III.	Hungary and Illyria	7,350,000	
	Transylvania	1,443,364	
	Bukowine	130,000	
	Eastern Gallicia	2,797,119	
	Western Gallicia	1,106,178	
			—12,826,661
	Total Population of the Hereditary States		21,585,798.

It would occupy more space than we can conveniently spare, to detail the interesting contents of the remaining Tables: but the specimens, which we have given, are sufficient to prove their value, and to recommend them to all those who are curious in statistics.

At the end of the sheets containing the particulars of the ecclesiastical states, we have a list of the Imperial Abbeys, with their extent in square-miles, their population, and their revenues in florins.

These Tables are far from perfect; many blanks occurring in the columns; and perhaps fresh surveys are necessary in most instances, in order to make the information completely satisfactory.

Art. IV. *Elémens d'Algèbre,* &c. i. e. Elements of Algebra, for equations of the second degree with one unknown quantity, extraction of the square root of literal quantities, calculus of quantities effected by the sign √, formation of the powers of * *monomial* quantities, extraction of their roots, and calculus of radicals and exponents, formation of the powers of complex quantities and extraction of their roots, extraction of the roots of complex quantities, equations of two terms, general theory of equations, transformations of equations, elimination, numerical resolution of equations with one unknown quantity, theory of exponential quantities and of logarithms, interest of money.

M. LA CROIX has extracted, from the works of *Bezout*, *Euler*, and *La Grange*, a great variety of valuable methods; and the excellence of the selection forms, in our opinion, the chief merit of the first volume: since, in examining the difficult points which occur in the Elements, we do not find them treated either with great logical precision, or with peculiar happiness of illustration. The reflections on positive and negative quantities are not very satisfactory; and the demonstrations concerning the sign, with which the product of negative and positive quantities ought to be affected, are erroneous. It can never be proved, independently of all previous assumption, that b multiplied by $(a-a)$ is $(ab-ab)$: it can indeed be proved that $(a'-a) \times b$ is $(a'b-ab)$ if a' be greater than a: but the proof essentially depends on this very circumstance that a' is greater than a, and must fail if $a' = a$. What is said concerning the origin and use of impossible quantities will not satisfy the scrupulous and inquisitive mathematician; who deems the evidence of principles, and the justness of inference, objects of as great importance as compendiousness of method and facility of computation.

The second volume, *Complement of the Elements of Algebra*, begins with *Symmetrical Functions of the Roots of Equations.* These, it is known, are parcels of expressions formed by combining all the roots of an equation either with one another or with given quantities, exactly in the same manner. Newton, who gave formulæ for the sum of the roots, and of the squares, of the cubes, &c. &c. of the roots of an equation, was the first inventor of the calculus of symmetrical functions; and after him this branch was cultivated by Waring, by *Vandermonde*[†], by

Euler,

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[*] We believe that there is no authority for *monomial*, (monome): but, as thus translated, it is an analogous expression with binomial, trinomial, &c.

[†] M. *Vandermonde*, in a note to his memoir (Academy of Sciences, Ann. 1771, page 365.) acknowledges that Waring found out theo-

rems

Euler *, and by *La Grange* †. M. La Croix, after having demonstrated Newton's rule for the sum of the powers of the roots of an equation, shews how to deduce the value of $\alpha^n \beta^p \gamma^q$, &c. $+ \beta^n \alpha^p \gamma^q$, &c. $+$, and applies the formulæ of symmetrical functions to transform equations into new equations, of which the roots are the squares of the differences of the roots of the original equation.

The next subject treated in this volume is *The General Resolution of Equations.* This difficult point is not very fully discussed: but the principle of solution is very perspicuously explained, and illustrated by an application to quadratic, cubic, and biquadratic equations. The principle of the solution consists in finding functions proper for the expression of the roots of a proposed equation, and the determination of which functions depends on an equation of an inferior degree.

We are then presented with *Observations on the Expressions of Roots of Equations of the Third and Fourth Degree.* In the irreducible case, the root in fact appears under an imaginary form. *Bombelli*, by taking the quantities comprized under the cubic radicals as perfect cubes, was convinced of the reality of the imaginary formula: but he was unable to establish a general proof of the reality; which was first given by *M, Nicole* in the Memoirs of the Academy of Paris, who expanded $\sqrt[3]{a+b\sqrt{-1}}$, $\sqrt[3]{a-b\sqrt{-1}}$ into two series, and shewed that the impossible parts mutually destroyed each other. M. La Croix has made a valuable extract from the *Séances des Ecoles Normales*, in which M. *La Grange* shews that the value of x in the irreducible case must always be real: " But how," says this great mathematician, " can we assign its value? It does not appear possible to represent it otherwise than by its imaginary expression, or by an expression in the form of a series, which is the developement of it. We must therefore regard these sorts of imaginary expressions, which correspond to real quantities, as forming a new class of algebraic expressions; which, although they have not, as other expressions have, the advantage of being numerically computed in the state in which they are, have nevertheless what is alone necessary in algebraical operations, that of being employed in these operations as if they did not contain imaginary quantities."

On the Extraction of the Roots of Quantities partly commensurable, partly incommensurable. On the Reduction of Equations. The

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rems analogous to his own. M. V. received the *Meditationes Algebraicæ* in the interval between the reading and the printing of his memoir.

* Introd. in Annalysin. Infin. † Berlin Memoirs.

author here shews how to reduce equations when there is a given relation between the roots; for instance, if the roots are known to be of the form a, $-a$, or, a, $\frac{1}{a}$. He then shews that, towards the resolution of equations of the third degree, nothing is gained by resolving them into two factors, as $(x^2+a'x+b'$, $x+a'')$, since the determination of any one of the co-efficients (a', b, a'') depends on an equation of as high a degree as the original equation. If equations of the fourth degree be resolved into two quadratic factors, then the determination of their coefficients depends on an equation of the sixth degree: but, if the coefficient of the second term of the original equation $=0$, then the determination of one of the unknown coefficients may be obtained by the resolution of a cubic; since the equation of the sixth degree then assumes the form, $x^6+px^4+qx^2+s$. Since the last term of the equation of the sixth degree is negative, the equation must have two real roots; and consequently the coefficients of the terms of the quadratic factors may be proved to be real. There is, however, a particular case * in which they cannot be so proved, and this M. LA CROIX notices. It was first remarked by M. *La Grange* in the Berlin Memoirs; and this mathematician made use of it to shew the insufficiency of *Euler*'s demonstration, viz. that every equation of an even degree may be resolved into real factors of the second degree. The demonstration of this latter proposition is given by M. LA CPOIX, after *La Place*; and the same demonstration is also inserted in M. LA CROIX's Treatise on the Differential and Integral Calculus. See M. R. *N. S.* vol. xxxi. p. 493. and vol. xxxii. p. 485.

On the Disappearance of Radicals by which o means that an Equation may be formed when the Expression of its Root is known. Suppose $x=\sqrt[3]{A}$. Let α, β, γ, be the three roots of 1; then $x=\alpha\sqrt[3]{A}$, $\beta\sqrt[3]{A}$, $\gamma\sqrt[3]{A}$; then, if the three factors $(x-\alpha\sqrt[3]{A}$, &c. be multiplied together, the result is x^3-A, since it is plain that $\alpha+\beta+\gamma=0$, $\alpha\beta+\alpha\gamma+\beta\gamma=0$, and $\alpha\beta\gamma=1$.

Euler, remarking the form which the roots of equations of the second and third degree wanting the second term assumed, conjectured that in general the root of an equation of the nth degree would be of this form:

$$x=\sqrt[n]{A}+\sqrt[n]{B}+\sqrt[n]{C},\ \&c.\quad (n-1)$$

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* This case is when the last term of the resolving equation is 0: for then the value of one of the coefficients appears under the indeterminate form $\frac{0}{0}$.

but he afterward modified it into

$$x = A\sqrt[n]{u} + B\sqrt[n]{u^2} + C\sqrt[n]{u^3}, \text{ \&c.}$$

The latter form was given by Waring in the first edition of his *Meditationes*, 1763; and he asserts that *Euler*'s and *Bezout*'s methods appeared after the publication of his work. This fact is certain: but it is not clear that *Euler* did not discover the method *pro suâ parte*.

M. La Croix applies *Euler*'s method to equations of the fourth and fifth degree; shews what are the equations which have roots of the form $\sqrt[m]{A} + \sqrt[n]{B}$; and then says:

'The preceding reflections are sufficient to manifest the nature of the difficulties which the problem of the algebraical resolution of equations presents; and, on re-uniting them, it is easy to conclude that it is yet doubtful whether it is possible to express, by a limited number of algebraical operations, (that is to say, of additions, subtractions, multiplications, and extractions of roots generally indicated,) the roots of any equation whatever, by means of its coefficients. Even in the third degree, for which general formulæ have been found, these formulæ become illusory in the irreducible case; and the same circumstance, which *à fortiori* ought to take place in higher degrees, would suffice to render useless the formulæ belonging to equations of those degrees, when such formulæ should be known. "We may then, (says *La Croix*,) be previously assured that, if we were to arrive at the general solution of equations of the fifth and of higher degrees tity, but which, being submitted to the operations indicated in the equation, nevertheless renders the sum of all the terms equal to zero. By this example, we may understand that, if there exists for a single case an expression of the root of an equation of an even degree, this expression ought still to subsist for every other case. It has appeared, however, that every equation of an even degree has at least two real roots when its last term is negative; yet the value of these roots, depending on that of the coefficients of the proposed equation, must necessarily be compounded of its coefficients, combined in a certain manner; or must be a function of the coefficients. Although we cannot assign the form of this function, its existence is not the less evident: the method of series and the differential calculus furnish the means of obtaining its developement. This being established, it is plain that it ought to subsist when the sign of the last term of the proposed equation is changed; and then it becomes the root of an equation of which the last term is positive. It may, by this change, cease to be real, but it will retain its existence as an analytical expression; it will always, then, be lawful to represent it by a symbol which shall partake of properties common to all roots of equations.'

The article which next occurs relates to *Certain Transformations which lead to the Resolution of Equations of the first Four Degrees*. Of these transformations, the first is that of *Tschirnaus*, by which he reduced equations of the second, third, and fourth degrees, to two terms; the second is that of *Cardan*, by which he solved cubics; and the third is that of *La Grange* [*], by which he solved biquadratics.

On the Developement of Fractional and Negative Powers.—In this article, the writer demonstrates the binomial theorem by two different methods. The first is taken from *Euler*: but, as it rests (to use the author's phrase) 'on a consideration too fine to be apprehended by young students,' a second is added from the Philosophical Transactions (year 1796). If M. LA CROIX had referred to Landen's Residual Analysis, he would there have found the same demonstration; and if he had consulted his discernment, and had taken a nearer view of the principle of the demonstration, he might have perceived that it is not founded on the simple operations of calculation.—We do not concur in the commendation given to *Euler*'s proof.

On the Summation of Series of which the general Term is a rational Function of a certain Number of Terms.—On recurring Series.—On the Developement of Exponentials and Logarithms into Series.—The developement of a^x is effected on the same principle as the one employed to demonstrate the binomial theorem. In our opinion, this principle involves a sophism.

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[*] This method is only an extension of that of *Cardan*: it consists in assuming $x = u + u' + u''$, u, u', u'' being three indeterminate quantities.

M. La Croix gives some formulæ invented by *Borda* and *Haros*, which express, by means of very converging series, the relations between the several logarithms of successive numbers. The formula of *Borda* is thus deduced:

In the series for the log. $\frac{1+u}{1-u}$

make $1+u=(p-1)(p-1)(p+2)=p^3-3p+2$

$1-u=(p+1)(p+1)(p-2)=p^3-3p-2$;

thence may be deduced

$$l.(p+2)+2l.(p-1)-l.(p-2)-2l.(p+1)$$

$$=2le\left\{\frac{2}{p^3-3p}+\frac{1}{3}\left(\frac{2}{p^3-3p}\right)^3+,\text{ \&c.}\right.$$

If p be taken successively 5, 6, 7, 8, there result four equations, which contain only the logarithms of 2, 3, 5, 7, which may consequently be determined by a simple elimination.—The formula of *Haros* is obtained in a manner somewhat similar.

The concluding articles in the volume are *Reversion of Series;*—*Continued Fractions;*—which, with some slight alterations, form the first paragraph of the additions made by *La Grange* to *Euler*'s Algebra, (see vol. ii. p. 379);—and *On the Indeterminate Analysis.*

Such are the contents of this work; in which the writer appears to possess greater learning than discernment, and to be more attentive to dexterity of method than to nicety and exactness of principle. He has great merit in having understood, arranged, and reduced to system the labours of other mathematicians:—but it is a thankless office to distribute the mediocrities of commendation; and an author, who is fully conscious that his production possesses only limited excellence, is impatient and vexed at having such circumscribed praise assigned to it.

Art. V. *Histoire du Directoire Exécutif de la République Française* &c. *i. e.* The History of the Executive Directory of the French Republic, from its foundation to the 18th Brumaire (8 Nov. 1799.) inclusive: accompanied by justificatory Papers. 8vo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1801. London: imported by De Boffe. Price 14s.

Many sages and politicians have fondly extolled and strenuously recommended representative governments. Under these forms, it has been said, the governors sought only the good of the governed; while the latter, in exchange for subjection, shared in every comfort and in every blessing which endear and give value to existence. Recent experience, however,—that which the directorial rule in a neighbouring country furnishes,—has not only ill corresponded with but has completely contradicted this theory. While that political regimen prevailed, all authority was derived from suffrage; and surely never was power intrusted to more unworthy or more incompetent hands. Had minions and mistresses appointed the occupiers of places of trust and influence, could they have been worse filled? In what age, or in what country, have rulers shewn more want of dignity, greater propensity to abuse power, and more aptitude to betray their trusts, than were exhibited by these persons; whose misconduct has occasioned the French people to embrace usurpation and military tyranny as boons, to receive their yoke with pleasure, and to bless those who imposed it on them? The traits of the directorial government are, alas! too well known to Europe: but the circumstances, which shew that its origin did not ill comport with its future destinies, are probably less notorious. A few of these we shall copy from the author of the work now before us, and submit to our readers.

While the Councils were taking measures for the nomination of the members of the supreme magistracy, those members, who had been of the Convention, considered it as of the utmost importance that the choice should fall on persons of like principles with themselves. In order to carry their point, this faction had recourse to the most gross and indecent artifice that ever was adopted. The Council of Five Hundred presented to that of the Antients, a list of fifty candidates, out of which it was to chuse five, who were to constitute the Executive Directory. The list contained only six names of any note. This proceeding called forth loud but ineffectual remonstrances; the election proceeded; and it was conducted agreeably to the expectations of those who had practised this clumsy fraud. When *Sieyes* declined a directorial seat, the same disgraceful stratagem was again succesfully played off. It unfortunately thus happened, that too many of the views and maxims of the deceased Convention were infused into the new government;—views and maxims which led it to adopt measures ruinous in the highest degree to France, and not less calamitous to the rest of Europe.

Those who are curious in observing the caprices of the human mind, and desirous of drawing practical inferences from such observations, will not slightly pass over the account given in these volumes, of the conspiracy of *Baboeuf*; who, together with his followers, worshipped the memory of the bloody *Robespierre*, regarding him as a *martyr in the cause of mankind!*

We are glad to perceive that a Frenchman, and in appearance a revolutionary partisan, is disposed, and dares, to sympathize with fallen greatness; to commiserate and to bear honourable testimony to expatriated royalty. The public are in possession, through the channels of the newspapers, of the notice sent to Louis the XVIIIth, by the Rulers of Venice, to quit their territories, and of his spirited answer. We are here told that, while at Verona, this Prince led a most regular life; that his dress and decorations were arranged every morning by eight o'clock; that the greatest part of the forenoon was employed in writing, and that he was visible only to his chancellor; that his table was frugal; that after dinner he gave audience to a few persons, and then shut himself up, and was heard walking about with great agitation; that towards night his spirits grew more calm, when he joined his courtiers, in order to hear some reading; that he never went out, never visited Verona, nor its vicinity; that he regularly read the *Moniteur*, and the principal French papers; that he always bore the name of Count *de Zelle*; and that once, on an emigrant being presented who styled him *his Majesty*, profound sighs escaped him.

The Directory, it is well known, accused *Pichegru* of having this General really be blameless, why is he still an exile from his natal soil, subsisting on the bounty of strangers, and treated by his country as a criminal and an outlaw? Why is he not recalled; why is not his rank restored to him; and why does not the republic honor itself by conferring honors on one of the ablest and most respected of its soldiers?—We should be glad to learn the reply of the consular advocates.

The complaisance shewn by *Bonaparte* towards the Mohammedan Religion is stated by the present author to have been not only allowable, but laudable, because it prevented the effusion of blood. In the proclamations which he addressed to the inhabitants of the country, and in his correspondence with the Sheriff of Mecca, the Sultan of Dac-fur, and other Mohammedans, he quoted passages from the Koran, and the profession of faith of the Mussulmans: "There is no other god than God, and Mohammed is his prophet." The fanaticism of religion, says this writer, may accuse him of apostacy; and the hardihood of irreligion may charge him with weakness: but true philosophy and wisdom will acquit him of either.—What the grounds are, however, on which philosophy and wisdom will excuse this duplicity, the author has not condescended to state.

Respecting the expedition of the French into Egypt, which apparently may now be said to have terminated so disastrously for them, we are told that the scientific men attached to the army made important discoveries, which throw light on geography, history, and physics. The tracks of the canals which rendered antient Egypt so fertile, commercial, and populous, were sought with the utmost care. Artists traversed the province of Faroum, and Upper Egypt, to take drawings of its numerous monuments. If there were obstacles to be surmounted, fatigues to be undergone, and dangers to be braved, all was rendered easier by the presence of a conquering army; and places were visited, which the jealousy of the inhabitants had shut against former travellers. - We have heard much of these promises, but we have not yet been presented with very satisfactory fulfillments of them.

From the garbled accounts of many important events which occur in these pages, it follows either that the author is an extravagant partisan, or that the press in France is under restraints equally grievous and absurd. Actions with English ships are, in particular, materially misrepresented; and the fatal issue of them on the French side is concealed or diminished as much as circumstances could possibly countenance. For instance; in relating the engagement off the N. Coast of Ireland in October 1798, between the French invading squadron under Rear Admiral Bompart, and the English squadron under Captain

Sir John B. Warren, the author says that the latter consisted of *six ships of the line*, one ship *cut down*, and *two* frigates: but the fact is that there were only *three ships of the line*, and *five* frigates;—and in attempting to gloss over the almost total capture of the French squadron, he states that *L'Embuscade* blew up, that *le Hoche*, *la Bellone*, and *la Coquille* were obliged to strike, that *la Resolue* was too much damaged to take any part in the action, and that the (*other*) frigates effected their escape:—of which the truth is that *l'Embuscade* and *la Resolue* were captured as well as *le Hoche*, *la Bellone*, and *la Coquille*, and that two others, *la Loire* and *l'Immortalité*, were taken a few days afterward:—*la Romaine*, *la Semillante*, and *la Biche*, only escaping out of the whole squadron, consisting of ten vessels; one of the line, eight frigates, and a schooner.—The memorable battle of the Nile is related with more fidelity.

Art. VI. M. de la Harpe's *Lycæum, or Course of Lectures on Antient and Modern Literature.*

[*Article continued from the last appendix.*]

Vol. iii. in two parts. antients. Book ii. *Eloquence.* Chap. iv. *Analysis of Cicero's Works on Oratory.*

Sect. I. *Of the Difference in the Style and Character of the Eloquence of Demosthenes and Cicero, and the conformity of each to the peculiar genius of the People of Athens and Rome.*

We have been much more diffuse in our remarks, and more liberal in our extracts, in examining the first two vols. of this work, than it seems necessary for us to be in the subsequent parts of so extensive a publication. Indeed the first two volumes appear to be the most elaborate, and to contain articles more important and more generally interesting, than any of the subsequent parts which we have yet perused. Not that we perceive any deficiency in the Lecturer's labour, spirit, or ingenuity; for he keeps our attention alive, revives our acquaintance with many writers of whom we have long lost sight, and makes us wish for leisure to peruse them ourselves, *de novo*, with as much care as he seems to have done.

M. de la Harpe begins the iiid volume in the following manner:

> 'We have heard Demosthenes in two kinds of eloquence, the judicial and the deliberative; and we have seen that his logic was equally forcible, and the succession of his ideas equally rapid, in both. Cicero generally proceeds in a different manner: he prepares his hearers for what is coming; he seems to manage his powers by multiplying the means; he not only neglects nothing which can serve his

cause, but nothing which can contribute to the glory of his art;—and it is doubtless on this account that *Fenelon*, whose taste was so delicate, was so partial to Demosthenes, because he came more immediately to the point. Quintilian, on the contrary, seems to have preferred Cicero; which only proves that, between two orators of such superior merit, preference is rather an affair of taste than of demonstration.—My favorite has always been Cicero, and I still rank him first as a writer: but since I have attended deliberative assemblies, I have been inclined to think that the manner of Demosthenes would be more powerful in its effects than that of Cicero.

'It must be remarked that both of these orators are, with respect to us, only writers; we *hear* them not, we *read* them; they exercise not upon us the powers of persuasion, but those of pleasing. Philip and Eschines, Antony and Catiline, have been long sentenced; we now try Cicero and Demosthenes; and in this point of view the difference is great; since the Greeks and Romans first attended to the cause, and then to the orators. Both have had the same success in exercising their empire over the minds of men: but now I plainly perceive that Cicero, who possesses every kind of wit and all sorts of style, must be more generally admired than Demosthenes, who had not that advantage. Cicero gives his reader every species of pleasure, and in perusal would be preferred: but Demosthenes, in being heard, would be irresistible in the force of his reasoning, which is certainly the most important object in the oratorical art.

'May we not also observe other motives of disparity, drawn from the different kinds of government and character among the people whom they addressed! In Athens, there was only one power, that of the people: it was an absolute democracy, such as *Rousseau* wished, exclusively, *for small states*: he believed it to be impracticable in great; and there is no example of it.

'The Athenians were fickle, averse from application, fond of repose, idolators of pleasure, confident in their powers, and vain of their former glory. They wanted to be violently agitated; and though the manner of Demosthenes was doubtless the result of natural qualities and talents, he was obliged to modify it, to a certain degree, by the knowlege which he had of his audience; and this study was too important to escape a man of his penetration and elevation of mind. He therefore principally aimed at forcibly striking this inattentive multitude; well knowing that, if he allowed them time to breathe, if he permitted them to think of the beauties of his style and diction, all was lost. The Athenians were capable of forgetting all that he had said, in order to be in raptures at his phraseology, and make a parade of their own good taste by encomiums on that of the orator. He knew it so well that, at the end of the *Philippic* which I have translated, and which gained him great applause, he cried out: "Ah! applaud not the orator, but follow his counsel; for I cannot save you by words: it is your business to save yourselves by actions."

'Accordingly, when he had roused the people, he had done every thing: they commissioned him immediately to draw up a decree in the usual form, which assigned to the orator all the honour and all the danger; *By the advice of Demosthenes, the Athenian people order and decree*, &c. There are still numerous decrees of this kind preserved by the historians and orators of Greece.

'Such was not the practice at Rome: there, a concurrence of powers, and a complication of different interests, were to be managed. Though the sovereignty was in fact lodged in the hands of the people, without being theoretically established, as it has been among the moderns, the habitual government appertained to the senate; except on occasions in which the tribunes brought a cause before an assembly of the people, and passed a *plebiscitum;* and then even the senate was obliged to submit.—But what proves that the theory of the sovereignty of the people was not clearly known, is that all the public acts were textually acknowleged: *Senatus populusque Romanus* was inconsistent; this principle required them to say, *Populus senatusque Romanus.* But this difference between the sovereignty and the government has not been sufficiently defined, except in the writings of Locke; and from them *Rousseau* has transplanted it into his *Social Contract.*

'Affairs of state were often discussed at the same time in the senate and before the people; and the difference of the audience required a different kind of eloquence: for there were citizens so powerful, that they alone could, by their personal credit, throw a considerable weight into the scale; and the orator was obliged to attend to all these considerations.

'The Roman people were much more serious, thoughtful, considerate, and moral, than the Athenians; and it may even be said that of all the free people of antiquity, none can be compared with them.'

This parallel is pursued to a considerable length; and the different species of eloquence, which characterized the two great orators of antiquity, is clearly manifested by nice discriminations.

Sect. II. *Of Roman Orators who preceded Cicero, and of his first Attempts.*—This section, though short, gives a clear and satisfactory account of the progress of eloquence among Roman statesmen, from the time of Cato the Censor, to the days of Hortensius and Cicero.

Sect. III. *The Verrene Orations.*—Sect. IV. *The Catilinarian Orations.*—Sect. V. *On the other Harangues of Cicero.*—The account of Cicero's pleadings against Verres is here almost wholly taken from Middleton's *Life of Cicero,* without acknowlegement. Catiline's conspiracy is more clearly detailed in Middleton: but the first and fourth orations against him are well translated by the present lecturer.

The *Murena* cause brought on by Cato, as prosecutor, produced one of Cicero's most agreeable orations in defence of the accused consul: in which, to diminish the weight of Cato's character, he says: "take away from this cause the name of Cato; set aside its authority, which ought to have no weight in a legal judgment, nor any credit, but in doing good;—

and let them attack us by facts." The lenient measures which Cicero recommends to the prosecutor, and his description of Stoicism, addressed to Cato himself in full senate, are admirable; and though this part of his speech excited laughter in all the conscript fathers, Cato, on going out, only said, half smiling and half grumbling: *Truly, we have a very facetious consul.*

M. DE LA HARPE has translated Cicero's oration in favour of the Greek poet Archias. As his client had been accused of no crime, and only sued to be reinstated in the rights of a Roman citizen, of which he had been unjustly deprived; Cicero availed himself of this opportunity of celebrating *literature,* and the cultivation of the human mind. The rhetorical style of this elegant and admirable speech is neither in his sublime nor in his simple manner, but of the temperate order; and it is given as a specimen of the grace, beauty, and interesting ornaments, with which he captivated his hearers in treating subjects of little importance.—In speaking of education, he allows that many illustrious persons, from a happy nature, have arrived at every thing that is great and glorious by their own diligence, without lessons; " nay, I will go still farther, (he adds,) and allow that nature, without instruction, has generally more power than instruction without nature:—but when we join to the gifts of nature all the assistance which instruction can afford, the result will be every thing that is beautiful, grand, and admirable, in man."

The character and works of Cicero, with the incidents in his life, have supplied M. DE LA HARPE with a chain of historical facts, and subjects of reflection, on which he seems to have dwelt with pleasure; and this article, illustrated by translations of the most agreeable and interesting orations of this great advocate and statesman, during the most busy and important period of the Roman history, will equally contribute to the amusement and the instruction of those readers who are unacquainted with the dead languages.

These sections are followed by an *Appendix,* or new reflections concerning antient eloquence; the erudition of the 13th, 14th, and 15th centuries; the dialogue of Tacitus *de causis corruptæ eloquentiæ;* Demosthenes and Cicero, &c. A part of this appendix turns on a controversy between the author and M. *Garat,* respecting the distinction between eloquence and oratory. In speaking (p. 170) of the obligations which literature owed to Dante, Petrarca, and Boccacio, the author's chronology is a little inaccurate when he says: ' They all three flourished in the 14th century, at the time of the taking of Constantinople.' The three fathers of the Italian language certainly flourished in the 14th century; Dante died in 1321, Boccacio in 1375, and Petrarca in 1374: but Constantinople was not taken by the Turks till the middle of the 15th century, 1453: so that the three Italian bards were all dead long before that event.

The horrors of revolution, and of national atheism, are so truly described in this appendix, that the author must have incurred *deportation* at any other period of the French republic than the present;—in favour of which, this circumstance bears testimony.

Chap. V. *Of the two Plinys.*

> 'Roman eloquence (says the lecturer) participating in the ruin of public liberty, lost all that it had gained from this source; its dignity, its elevation, its energy, its boldness, and its importance. It could no longer direct the assemblies of the people, which had lost all their power: in the deliberations of a slavish senate, it must either be dumb, or exercise itself in adulation and meanness: the tribunals were no longer worthy of its voice, since public decisions had lost their credit and majesty, since trivial interests alone were discussed, and since every thing depended on the will of an individual. The orator triumphs when he subdues all opinions: but when all is submitted to a master, the talent of flattery alone is cultivated; for the abilities of men are always directed, more or less, to their own interest. A free state is the proper field for eloquence, in affording adversaries, combats, dangers, and triumphs.——Such was not the case at Rome even in the time of Augustus; whose reign has indeed given his name to that brilliant period of the perfection of taste, of language, and of the arts of imagination, yet saw true eloquence perish with the republic and with Cicero.'——
>
> 'Nevertheless, though eloquence and poetry had already very much degenerated, many men of merit still preserved the glory of their country in an inferior degree, and formed a kind of third age of Roman literature: in verse, Persius, Juvenal, Silius Italicus, Statius, Martial, and, above all, Lucan: in prose, Quintilian, Seneca, and the two Plinys. I speak not of Tacitus here, a man superior to all those whom I have named, who stands by himself, and who alone in this lower period was worthy of being compared with men of the most sublime genius in the age of Augustus. He will be introduced when we come to treat of *Historians.*'

The Panegyric of the younger Pliny on Trajan is the only monument of eloquence in this æra which remains, and the only object of comparison with the preceding period. Notwithstanding Pliny's excessive admiration of Cicero, and the severity with which he treated his contemporaries, he appears not to have made that great orator his model with any degree of success. 'His wit (says the lecturer) is infinite; it is scarcely possible to manifest more: but he takes too much pains to display it, and displays nothing else. He endeavours to *point* all his thoughts, to give them an epigrammatic turn; and this continual labour, this profusion of sallies, this monotony of wit, soon becomes tiresome. As in the case of Seneca, it is better to quote parts of him than to read him through.'—Here follows a parallel between the eloquence of Cicero and that of Pliny, very much to the disadvantage of the latter.

The author has selected and translated the most brilliant parts of Pliny's Panegyric on the Emperor; and if any thing can subdue envy, and render the commendation of others altogether palatable to ourselves, it must be the eulogy of so virtuous, humane, and faultless a prince. The praise of Pliny is strong, and would be very offensive if ill-applied or unmerited: but history has fully confirmed the indisputable title of this Emperor to all the virtues with which his encomiast has endowed him.

The letters of the younger Pliny have been rendered so familiar to unlearned readers in our country, by the elegant version of the late Mr. Melmoth, that we shall only farther observe respecting them, that M. DE LA HARPE has translated and commented on several, and has rendered them very interesting by his reflections and historical anecdotes.

Of the elder Pliny, called the *Naturalist*, (in order to distinguish him from his nephew,) it is to be remarked that, as a writer, the eloquence diffused through his work, and the imagination which animates and colours his style, intitle him to an eminent place among the authors of the last age of Roman literature. His book has been aptly styled the Encyclopedia of the Antients; and from him we are enabled to form an idea of the extent of their science. All is to be found in his work; astronomy, geometry, physiology, botany, medicine, anatomy, mineralogy, agriculture, mechanics, and the arts of luxury. The mere list of his labours and productions is terrific. M. DE LA HARPE has drawn his character with great spirit, and has translated his nephew's account of his studies.

ANTIENTS. Book III. *History, Philosophy, and Miscellaneous Literature.* Chap. I. *History.*

Sect. I. and II. *Greek and Roman Historians of the First Class.*—*Herodotus* is first characterized, as a clear, elegant, and pleasing writer: but as deficient in method, in details, and in critical examination of facts.

Thucydides is censured for defects of a very different kind from those of his predecessor: he is said to be too concise in narration, and too long in harangues. He abounds with reflections, but they are sometimes obscure; and he has a philosophical gravity in his style, which occasionally renders it dry. For these reasons, he is read with less pleasure than

Xenophon, who wrote some time after him, and who, on account of the sweetness of his style, has been surnamed the *Attic Bee.* He first published and continued the history of Thucydides, to which he added seven books. He had been a disciple of Socrates; and he had commanded the memorable retreat of the ten thousand, one of the wonders of antiquity, and of which he was worthy to write the history. Like Cæsar, he was the historian of his own exploits; like him, he joined the talent of recording them to the glory of the atchievements themselves; like him, he is intitled to perfect credence, because there were so many witnesses of the facts. In his history, he is admired as a statesman; in his *Cyropædia*, as a philosopher.

Livy and *Sallust* are compared with Herodotus and Thucydides by Quintilian; who also associates Livy with Cicero in eloquence. Sallust is accused by the lecturer of wilful omissions with respect to the services which Cicero rendered to the state:—but how could he be expected to mention as virtues Cicero's detection of Catiline, and his enmity to Clodius, both of whom were secretly abetted by Sallust's patron, Cæsar? Party spirit and candour are mortal enemies.

Tacitus's character is admirably drawn. *Quintus Curtius* is rated higher by the present author than he has usually been by others: while *Polybius* and *Dionysius Halicarnassus* are placed somewhat lower: M. DE LA HARPE regarding the first as a writer in the art of war, and the second as an antiquary, rather than classing them as elegant historians.

Diodorus Siculus, *Appian*, *Arrian*, and *Dion Cassius*, are characterized by a word. The author does not allow that they surpassed *mediocrity*.

Ammianus Marcellinus, and *Herodian*, are alone worthy of the lower empire.

Sect. III. *Historians of the Second Class.*—Here we are presented with a portrait of *Justin*, a whole length; with *Florus*, and *Paterculus*. Two fine passages in Justin are well translated: containing the characters of Alcibiades and Philip of Macedon, exquisitely drawn. *Cornelius Nepos*, and *Suetonius*, biographers.

Plutarch, an excellent whole length. Harangues translated from *Livy* (aristocratic), *Sallust* (democratic), *Tacitus*, (defence of a republican speech), and *Quintus Curtius*'s speech of a Scythian to Alexander the Great, sententious and figurative, in the Oriental and the Northern manner.

Vol. III. Part II. ANTIENTS. Book III. *History, Philosophy, and Miscellaneous Literature.* Chap. II. *Antient Philosophy.*

Nothing can more indisputably prove the secession of M. DE LA HARPE from his old friends the modern *Philosophes*, than his reflections on the philosophical systems of the antients. In so wide a field of disputation as that into which the innumerable sects and sages of antiquity seem to have called him, he appears to have explored chiefly the four divisions occupied by Plato, Plutarch, Cicero, and Seneca: but we cannot enable our readers to follow him in his inquiries into their principles, nor afford space for many quotations either from himself or from the writers whom he has selected. All that we can cite, from this part of the third volume, is a translation of the introduction prefixed to this chapter on the Philosophy of the Antients; which will exhibit the author's own philosophical articles of faith, and unfold the manner in which he intends to proceed in his investigations.

‘ *Preliminary Ideas.*

‘ It must not be expected that I should analyse the philosophical system of the antients with so much minuteness as I have bestowed on the laws of poetry and eloquence, on which I endeavoured to extend my reflections in proportion to the importance of the subjects, and the interest which belongs to them. Philosophy, which is now to occupy our attention, has not equal attractions for all hearers or readers; nor is it by any means equally familiar to every mind, and congenial to every taste. It requires a laborious attention to the gravity of its objects, and which it cannot retain by the same powers of fascination. When instruction addresses itself to the imagination and to the heart, as much as to our minds and our taste, we fly to meet it: but when it is addressed only to our reason, it must have hearers who are determined to be taught. Yet reason has likewise her peculiar interest, and may please the mind even by the exercise which she requires. Besides, she will here meet with no contention, nor will she occasion fatigue to the intellects; these powers we shall leave to profound scholars, and to the learned by profession, with all the delights which they afford. It is their business to approximate Aristotle and Plato, Epicurus and Zeno, the Portico and the Academy; to oppose them to each other, or to reconcile them; and to try to understand them throughout, when they would not have understood themselves. Brucker, Deslandes, and innumerable other authors, have passed their whole lives in wandering in this labyrinth; which resembles those inchanted castles in which Ariosto represents the knights-errant tilting at each other, always fighting without knowing with whom, or for what; and afterward, when they quit their residence of illusions, finding themselves just as they were before they entered, aud confessing that they had been long dreaming with their eyes wide open.

‘ Such is most frequently the result of a multitude of systems generated in the antient schools, and long since abandoned: but this is no ground for blaming the antients, who are certainly more excusable than the moderns for undertaking what they could never atchieve. The most natural error of the human mind, when it aspires to discover the origin of things, (that is, when it seeks what will never be found,) has always been for men to put themselves at once in the place of the Creator, in order to perform over again, in imagination, the work of divine wisdom. It therefore follows that every philosopher has made a world of his own; one with fire, another with water, this with æther, and that with atoms. I shall certainly not entertain you with all these cosmogonies, which the curious may find recorded in innumerable books: happily, each promulgates his system without any inconvenience to mankind; and those of Descartes and Leibnitz have not been more dangerous than the rest. But these, however, are less excusable, because so many ages of experience ought to have instructed them that we should confine ourselves to the study of facts, and to the observation of phænomena, without pretending to divine first causes, the secrets of which belong to God as necessarily as the work itself: since each requires an infinitude of wisdom as well as of power

'If at length men have ceased to explain the theory and the materials of the eternal Architect, it has only been since two men of sublime genius, the one in mathematics, the other in metaphysics, Newton and Locke, demonstrated as clearly as possible the laws of motion, and the powers of the human mind; both confessing at the same time the impossibility of discovering the cause which moves bodies, and the action of the thinking faculty by which animal motion is performed. Since this period, other philosophers (for so atheists call themselves, exclusively,) have taken the opposite side; and have written huge books, such as *the System of Nature*, to teach us how the world might have existed without a cause, how all exists *by itself*, and maintains itself *by itself* in an eternal and necessary order; and, with a mass of words and reasoning absolutely unintelligible, they conclude with this grand discovery, that *all is so, because it is so*; which is at once profound and luminous, and which luckily leaves the world just as it is. It is not by such reveries that our *philosophes* have been rendered pernicious: they have been no more able to derange the physical world than to understand it: but we may hence judge what they would have done, if the Creator had for a moment allowed them the direction of it, as he has for a moment permitted them to make experiments on the moral and physical world.

'In spite of the radical vice of all the systems of the antient philosophers respecting the first principles of things, if physiology were comprehended in our plan, it would not be difficult to shew that the antients have had just, ingenious, and extensive views of many general and particular points of natural history: but views always more or less defective and unproductive, for two reasons: 1st. the want of a greater progress in mathematics, in which they had not advanced so far as mechanics, which constituted the glory of Archimedes; 2dly. the want of method, which consists in an exact and complete analysis, and in a severe dialectic;—by the one, an object is examined in all its parts; by the other, we let nothing pass without proof, and never build on the basis of an hypothesis. This method has been known only to the moderns: whom it above all things has enabled to tread firm in the career of natural knowlege, and has conducted so far in every pursuit after physical and mathematical science. It is, however, to an antient that we owe the invention of Logic and the reasoning art, as we have seen in the epitome of Aristotle: yet he himself not only did not derive from this discovery all the advantages which might have been expected, but he marked out a path to error for the scholastics, who have followed him in those abstractions known under the name of *categories* and *universals*, which they have abused.'

Sect. I. *Plato.*—This philosopher was the first among the antients who spoke clearly of the unity of God, of the immortality of the soul, and of rewards and punishments after death, proportioned to conduct in life. These were probably the doctrines of Socrates. Plato acknowleged that the world had a beginning, and that God was its creator, the eternal and supreme architect, &c.

Sect. II. treats of *Plutarch;* who was always on the watch for events and anecdotes, and carefully recorded them. Plato and Aristotle were his favourite philosophers. He was hostile to the Stoics; and he was the best moralist of Pagan antiquity. M. DE LA HARPE gives a list of his principal moral essays. His doctrines concerning the Divinity are the same as those of Plato and Cicero.—The lecturer here considers not his biographical writings, which are described with due praise in the section of History: but what are called Plutarch's *Morals* are here chiefly discussed; and from them the author has selected and given translations of some of the best of his maxims, anecdotes, and characteristic traits and narratives; not forgetting to censure, gently, some small defects which are observable in the works of this admirable writer.

Sect. III. *Cicero.*—When the civil war broke out between Cæsar and Pompey, Cicero, retiring from that government in which arms had superseded laws, thought that he could not employ his time better than in the study of philosophy. He had always loved and cultivated this pursuit, as is manifest in all his works: but hitherto he could only bestow on it the few moments which he could steal from public affairs, in which he has been seen to act so important a part, both as an orator and a magistrate. In the space of five years, he had formed a complete course of Grecian philosophy, of which a considerable portion has perished. He invented metaphysical terms for the Romans, or gave them in Greek, since he first treated philosophical subjects in the Latin language; and these terms are still retained in our schools.

He was an academic,—that is, on the side of Socrates and Plato: admitting nothing to be nearer to truth than that it was *probable:* which Pyrrhonism is combated by the lecturer. Cicero writes in dialogue, like Plato; and he censures Epicurus, as does the present author, in spite of his own (Epicurus's) good life, which is always made an apology for his doctrines. Zeno and Stoicism find as little quarter. Excess either in voluptuousness or in virtue does not contribute to *general* happiness; and Cicero here, as in the Murena cause, ridicules the principles of the Portico.—The Epicurean blasphemies, though they are said to be despised by Cicero, should not have been given by M. DE LA HARPE without a refutation of them.—Cicero's *treatise on moral duties* is recommended to be read by youth in the course of education; and his essays on *friendship* and *old age* are justly praised as of the most general use at all times and in all places.

Sect. IV. *Seneca.*—The author begins this section with an account of the violent controversy between *Diderot* and *La Grange*, concerning the merit and principles of Seneca *. Besides giving vent to his ire against *La Grange* for censuring Seneca's philosophy, and doubting his virtue, Diderot attacked *J. J. Rousseau* in a philippic so furious, that all Europe, with whom the citizen of Geneva was then in high favour, (his *Contrat Social* had not then been so much read as his *Profession de foi du Vicaire Savoyard*,) was much disgusted. Seneca's predictions respecting comets, which alone are spared by the lecturer in all his *philosophical questions*, were supposed by *Bailly* to have been suggested by the Chaldeans: " they are too deep for the Romans at the time in which Seneca flourished."

The champions for Plato and Seneca equally exaggerate the virtues and the defects of their heroes. Socrates, Plato, and Cicero, according to *Diderot*, are bad philosophers; and Seneca is still worse than bad, he is feeble, in the opinion of the present lecturer. Seneca is a great preacher of suicide: he says that "to take from Cato his poniard is envying him his immortality."—" The sage wants no friends, nothing external. All his resources are centered in his own mind; he lives but on what that furnishes."—Seneca has been often charged with corrupting the Latin language by affectation: but M. DE LA HARPE has accused him of being a bad logician, a bad reasoner, and, with all his morality, a preacher of doctrines noxious to society. ' What (says he) is good in him should be reduced one third; and what is well said may be condensed in a few pages. He speaks much about the Divinity; which, however, he makes as supine and useless as that of Epicurus.' *Diderot* seldom sees either an inconsistency or an imperfection in his favourite philosopher: but the reader of his essay must observe many in the commentator; who, like his hero, praises at one time that which he censures at another.

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* See *Essai sur la Vie de Sénèque le Philosophe, sur ses Écrits*, &c. Paris, 1779.

We may cease to wonder at the tyranny and atrocities committed by Nero, since the adulation of Seneca, his tutor, conferred on him omnipotence, in his treatise on *Clemency*; which was addressed to him during the second year of his reign, and before he was twenty years old; and which made him "the representative of the Divinity, with absolute power over the life and death of nations, in whose hands are placed the fate and fortune of each individual on earth." *—This treatise, so highly extolled by *Diderot*, is admirably analyzed by the present writer: but unluckily that work, which has cost him so much pains to confute it, and his auditors so much time and patience to hear it discussed, was little noticed when published, and seems to have been totally forgotten till revived at the Institute by M. DE LA HARPE; who (see p. 305 of this 2d part of his IIId. vol.) has pointed out the source of all *Diderot*'s bile against the censurers of the philosopher Seneca, by stating that, in pleading the cause of the latter, he was only defending himself and his brother *philosophes*, against the critics of a new translation of Seneca's works.

Whenever a book is praised or censured with a party spirit, the commendation or the blame is alike overcharged; and it seems as if the character given of Seneca's writings by the judicious and candid Quintilian†, who saw his defects without being blind to his abilities, was the nearest to the truth, when, though he accuses him of having corrupted Roman eloquence by an affected style, which he did not wish young students to imitate, he says: "*Cujus* (*Senecæ*) *multæ alioqui et magnæ virtutes fuerunt: ingenium facile et copiosum, plurimum studii, multarum rerum cognitio.*"

Chap. III. *Of the different kinds of literature of antient Greece and Rome.*

On this subject, the author has bestowed but a few pages; observing that miscellaneous literature was less abundant with the antients than the moderns. Few romances were produced by the Greeks, and only the Golden Ass of Apuleius by the Romans. Dionysius Halicarnassus is here treated more as an antiquary than an historian: but he is allowed to be excellent in every respect, except style and connection of narrative. His facts are given from high authority, stript of the marvellous, and are minute and curious.—After this discussion, we have short characters of Lucian, Pausanias, Varro, Columella, Vitruvius, Ælian, Athenæus, Diogenes Laertius, Valerius Maximus, Aulus Gellius, Macrobius, &c. to the end of the third volume.

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* Seneca *de Clementiâ.* † *Instit. Orator. lib.* 10. *num.* 128.

We have lately received the 8th, 9th, 10th, 11th, (in two parts,) and 12th volumes of this work; and also a new publication of this laborious author, containing his Literary Correspondence with the late Emperor of Russia, &c. in 4 vols. 8vo.

[*To be continued.*]

ART. VII. *Des Causes des Révolutions, et de leurs Effets; &c. i.e.* On the Causes of Revolutions, and their Effects; or, Historical and Political Considerations on the Manners which produce, accompany, and follow Revolutions. By J. BLANC DE VOLX. 8vo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1801. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 12s. sewed.

IN the first of these volumes, the reader is presented with the result of the application of historic knowlege, under the guidance of sound judgment and respectable discriminating powers, to the subject of the French Revolution. The work opens with a sort of natural history of Revolutions; several of which pass under review, while their causes, effects, and consequences are assigned and stated. That of France is connected with events up to the origin of the monarchy.—In going over this wide field, with which the writer shews himself well acquainted, the several changes that have taken place in the situation of the *noblesse* are accurately detailed; and the characters which introduce themselves are delineated with great justice:—those of Louis XI. *Richelieu,* and Louis XIV., are masterly sketches. In the long period over which he travels, M. DE VOLX happily marks and ably connects those decisive impulses, which prepared the catastrophe that our days have witnessed: but, in this excursion, he has stopped longer on his road than it was requisite for him to have been delayed. Had he given his readers credit for a knowlege of the facts, and been contented with drawing inferences from them, he might have entered more into a detail of the circumstances immediately preceding the grand *denouement;* which is the more to be wished, as he entertains views very different from those of preceding writers on the present subject. Moderation, dispassionate temper, and the appearance of great impartiality, distinguish his labours; and we have attended to him with great satisfaction and instruction.

M. DE V. traces all Revolutions to three causes; 1. Despotism in the depositaries of public authority; 2. The corruption of the mass of the people; 3. The diffusion of knowlege.—Revolutions wrought by conquests, he considers rather as changes of dynasties, than as Revolutions properly so called.

Speaking of Louis XI. he says, '*Nature had formed him for a tyrant, but this tyrant knew how to reign.*' The skill of this monarch in conducting public affairs, both internally and externally, has perhaps never been equalled. *Richelieu* may have approached him in discernment, in courage, and in perseverance: but we think that he fell short of Louis in address; and certainly the administration of the minister, though he reigned not less absolutely, was a less distinguishing epoch in the history of France. To those who read with proper discrimination,—and none but such read any thing to much advantage,—no histories deserve to be more recommended than those of the two great characters above mentioned. Admitting that duplicity and perfidy were leading features in the portrait of Louis, M. BLANC DE VOLX very properly adds: 'but all the princes, with whom he had to deal, were not less distinguished by these characteristics than himself. Frederic III., Charles the Bold, John of Arragon, the Popes, Maximilian of Austria, Edward IV., the Dukes of Savoy, Ferdinand, and Isabella,—in fine, his own great vassals,—were habituated to bad faith and perjury. If, surveying the conduct of most of the present great potentates, we call this *the age of rapacity*, we should call that of the above groupe, *the age of perfidy*.'

The author considers the principles of the reformers as introductory to those which have convulsed the present age. Like Mr. Burke, he extols chivalry, and mourns over its fall in the fields of Pavia; where, according to him, it expired when Francis I. became a captive. This Prince, he says, exhibited the frankness of a true knight; while his crafty rival substituted *address* in its place, and frequently *perfidy*. The example of Francis was lost on the age, while that of the Austrian was copied by multitudes, in consequence of the growing degradation of manners

In M. DE VOLX's opinion, Louis XIV. was a more systematic tyrant than he has been generally deemed. According to him, this monarch refused *La Fontaine* his patronage, because of the Poet's devotion to the unfortunate *Fouquet*, and because he dreaded the effects of his spirited maxims;—he disgraced *Fenelon* because he could not endure the doctrines scattered through the pages of his immortal romance;—he broke up the society of *Port Royal*, because the principles inculcated in the logic of *Nicoli*, and professed by that celebrated fraternity, gave him alarm;—he revoked the edict of Nantes, and banished the Protestants, as a politician and not as a bigot;—actuated in reality by his fears, and only in appearance by the exhortations of his mistress and his confessor, our author insists, he banished the sectaries because he regarded their principles as hostile to arbitrary power, and because he could not forget the ephemeral republic of Rochelle, and the fate of Charles the First.

We do not mean to controvert the position that Protestantism and arbitrary power are at variance : God grant that they may always continue so ! but it is a fact with which the present writer must be acquainted, that the Protestants of France were, for a long time, zealous preachers of passive obedience and non-resistance ; and that a proposition, consecrating those principles, having unanimously passed the *Tiers-étâts* of 1614, was rejected by the estate of the Clergy, and through its exertions by that of the Nobles. The part taken in this affair by Cardinal *du Perron*, and the controversy to which it gave rise between him and our James I. are well known. If we concede to the author, that this deference to absolute power arose rather from the accidental circumstances in which the Protestants found themselves, than from their principles, we are far from agreeing with him when he says that the Revocation of the edict of Nantes was a stroke of sound policy in an arbitrary prince, who wished to perpetuate arbitrary power ; and one which a Louis XI. and a *Richelieu*, a Julius Cæsar and a Frederic, would have adopted in like circumstances. Has M. DE V. forgotten what recent records testify, and what is almost within the recollection of the aged ? ' On the adoption of this not less impolitic than iniquitous measure, the moanings of the sufferers resounded in every corner of Protestant Europe ; pulpits invoked the vengeance of the Almighty, and roused the resentment of rulers and of people against the persecutor ; the sufferers spared not their cruel oppressor, but every where described him in the most hideous colours ; he was no longer, in the eyes of Europe, the *grand monarque*, but the odious tyrant, the dupe of monks, and the prey of mistresses ; and it is observable that the decline of the monarchy itself almost bears date from the period of that horrible transaction.

M. DE VOLX proposes and labours to solve the question, why, in a state of equal corruption of manners, the present Revolution in France, and that of Rome at the close of the Republic, had issues so different ;—the one establishing and the other extinguishing liberty ? Perhaps many of our readers will think that he would have done better, had he first ascertained the *fact* of this difference.

Among the projects entertained by *Robespierre*, one very worthy of him, and which had escaped us, is mentioned in this publication. It was proposed to convert the rising generation into children of the Republic. Infants, on arriving at the age of two years, were to be torn from the maternal bosom, and to be taken to large hospitals, under the denomination of schools.

They were not to bear the paternal names, but those of some Greek or Roman, in order to preclude every possibility of their being ever recognized by their relatives :—the native of the Pyrenees was to be transported to the Ardennes, that of the banks of the Drôme to Finisterre, and so of the rest, with the view of forming their manners and habits consistently with the new order of things. Certainly, nothing more horrid can be devised by the imagination of man.

M. de Volx gives the following account of the different classes of Royalists in France :

> ' The peasant tells you, " I desire a king, but the Seigneur must not have the power of sending me to the galleys for killing a rabbit ;" —the citizen says, " I desire a king, but the nobleman must not oppress me by feudal impositions ; and I wish to be allowed to rise to those situations for which my talents and taste may fit me :"—the rich man says, " I desire a king, but he must not be absolute lord of my destiny ; and he must not have it in his power to impose what taxes he pleases ;"—and the man of letters says, " I desire a king, but his power must be defined by laws which he is not to enact, to execute, nor to apply."'

From various passages which occur in the course of these volumes, it appears that those who consider the state of France as full of distress and difficulties come nearer to the truth than their opponents. Had we time, and did our limits allow us, to collect the traits which lie dispersed in these pages, they would constitute as gloomy a picture as any that has been drawn by the bitterest enemies of the republic.

For the plans of the institutions, by which this author proposes to renovate virtue and patriotism among his countrymen, we must refer to his second volume. The institutions of antiquity were nicely adapted to the mythology, the prevailing bent, the political relations, and the manners and habits of the several nations among whom they existed. M. de Volx appears to us not to be sufficiently aware of this circumstance, and to copy too freely from these sources. That society may be benefited by institutions of the nature of those which he recommends, we are far from denying : but we are of opinion that he is not happy in his plans. The general idea, however, is worth the attention of those who possess the requisite qualifications, and who feel the generous ambition of deserving well of their country ; while the author merits praise for the zeal and ability with which he presses the subject on public attention.

Though M. de Volx is either no Christian or wants courage to avow his faith, he seems deeply impressed with the importance of religious principles to the welfare of a state. In his judgment, the lower classes are to be restrained from the commission of crimes, only by the fear of the scaffold and of hell. 'See, (he says,) since you have taught the peasant to brave the scaffold, since you have banished from his breast the hope and the fear of heaven, how assassinations and crimes of all sorts multiply in an alarming progression. Behold with what brutal courage the malefactor mounts the scaffold on which he is to expiate his offences. Indifferent about the future, which he has been instructed not to regard, without restraint, and without terror, he does not fear to die, because he believes that death is an *eternal sleep.*'

This author eloquently describes the political ill effects of atheism, and remonstrates against tolerating the open profession of it:

> 'The republic (he says) tolerates all religions; and this moral principle is a political precept dictated by reason: but does not the public welfare assign limits to it? Should it be extended to those innovators who, by proclaiming their disconsolate doctrine, render men immoral? Has government no rein to curb these seditious jugglers, who attack society in its first elements, and who destroy all its springs? If toleration is to be extended to the brutal man who professes atheism, does it not terminate at the moment when the unhappy madman constitutes himself chief of a sect without God, and aspires to form disciples; at the moment when he promulgates his doctrines; when he endeavours to eradicate from the hearts of the wicked, the only sentiment which restrains them; and when he deprives the state of the moral security which it finds in the religious opinions of its citizens?'

M. DE VOLX corroborates his opinions by an anecdote which he quotes respecting *Voltaire. Diderot,* and other friends, dining at Ferney, the conversation turned on the subject of religion; and one of the guests spoke warmly in favour of atheism. *Voltaire* stopped him, ordered the servants out of the room, fastened the door, and taking his place, said, *Gentlemen, I do not chuse to be assassinated to-night; now that no other person is present, you may talk.*

We must here dismiss this work; repeating that it is very creditable to the moderation, the abilities, and the attainments of the author.

ART. VIII. M. MARCHAND'S *Voyage round the World, during the Years* 1790, 1791, *and* 1792.

[*Article concluded from the Appendix to vol.* XXXIV. *p.* 463.]

As our remarks on this publication have already extended to a considerable length, we shall comprize the remainder of our account in as short a compass as the variety and quantity of materials will permit.—M. MARCHAND sailed from China December 6, 1791; arrived at the Isle of France towards the end of January following; staid there above two months to recruit his crew, repair his vessel, purchase stock, &c. &c.; and then sailed for the Isle of *Bourbon*, now called the Isle of *Reunion*, to take in a cargo of coffee.—The editor, *M. Fleurieu*, observes respecting the fur-trade from the west coast of North America to China, that the mutual interest of the traders requires a temporary forbearance, to prevent the market from being constantly glutted; and also lest the animal itself, the sea-otter, should be totally exterminated:—but there appears to be little chance of such a forbearance, at least while the trade continues to yield profit, since it could be effected only by a general agreement among all the nations interested.

The navigation of the *Solide* from China is described minutely, and at length. *M. Fleurieu* has given a new chart of the *Streights of Billiton*, formed from a compilation of many different authorities; and he has proposed some other corrections for the chart of the Chinese seas: but we apprehend that he sometimes places too much reliance on the accuracy of the log-book and reckoning, considering that the ship was unprovided with a chronometer.

The voyagers arrived at *Toulon*, August 14, 1792, after an absence of only twenty months; a very short space of time, considering that the ship was a heavy sailer, and that a hundred and ten days were consumed in stoppages in different ports. We will not accuse M. MARCHAND of acting with impatience while employed on the main purposes of the expedition; yet we cannot forbear to observe that his resolves were sudden, and that his execution was prompt. He appears to have been the last of the traders that arrived on the coast of America, and he endeavoured to be the first that left it; and at Macao he remained only eight days.

A table of the ship's route shews her position every day at noon, both according to the dead reckoning, and to the account corrected by observations: from which is seen the effect of currents in different parts of the navigation. The general result of a great many instances seems to establish it as a principle, that, in the open seas, currents are generated and governed by the prevailing winds. In the usual trade winds between the tropics, the ship was constantly found more to the westward than the course and distance sailed, as estimated by the dead reckoning, would warrant; and in high latitudes, where the westerly winds are most prevalent, the ship was generally to the eastward of the reckoning.

Respecting an opinion entertained among seamen, relative to the flight of such birds as are supposed seldom to quit the neighbourhood of land, it is to be observed that, when any of these are seen in strange seas, it is usually imagined that land lies in the direction *towards* which they bend their course. If birds of this description be seen in flocks, the probability must be equal that land lies in the direction *from* which they come. Single land birds, seen at sea, may reasonably be supposed to have been blown from the coast by strong winds; and the direction in which the wind has recently been most violent, when it can be ascertained, is a good guide for conjecture.

In recommending ships to touch at the *Marquesas*, as more convenient than *Otaheite*, when coming from *Cape Horn* and bound to the northern coast of America, the author says that, 'from *Cape Horn* to the *Marquesas*, there is one continued clear open sea, free from shoals and dangers; which allows the use of all the sails as safely during the night as in the day.' It must by no means be admitted, however, in our judgment, that the sea between *Cape Horn* and the *Marquesas* has been sufficiently examined to warrant such a description.

The editor's inquiries concerning the discoveries of Sir Francis Drake are intended to prove that the southern lands, seen by him, are no others than the south-western part of *Terra del Fuego.* The '*Examen critique*' of *Roggewein*'s voyage is an essay towards ascertaining the geographical position of the different discoveries of that navigator; in which the parts that have been seen by more modern voyagers are separated from those of his discoveries concerning which we have only his relation. *M. Fleurieu* undertakes, in this examination, to demonstrate that *Easter Island* and *Davis's Land* are not the same: but we think that neither his evidence nor his arguments will be deemed convincing. As *M. de la Peyrouse* entertained a similar opinion, we shall venture a few remarks on the subject. *M. Fleurieu* writes:

' Before we quit Easter Island, I ought to remove a doubt or a pretension that the English have raised on this discovery of *Roggewein:* they would have us believe that this island is the land which the English freebooter, Davis, says he discovered in 1687, in 27° 20′ south latitude. As the relation of *Lionel Wafer* is the only account that we have of Davis's voyage, we have inserted an extract of the part relative to the discovery of *Davis's Land.*

' Davis had sailed from the *Gallipago Islands* towards the south, varying his route from south to south-east, till he reached the parallel of 27° 20′ south. [Here follows the extract, which, as it is not copied exactly from Wafer's account, we give from the original.] " We steered S. by E. ½ E. until we came to the latitude of 27° 20′

south; when, about two hours before day, we fell in with a small low sandy island, and heard a grĕat roaring noise like that of the sea beating upon the shore, right a head of the ship. Whereupon the sailors, fearing to fall foul upon the shore before dāy; desired the Captain to put the ship about, and to stand off till day appeared; to which the Captain gave his consent. So we plied off till day, and then stood in again with the land; which proved to be a small flat island without the guard of any rocks. We stood within ¼ of a mile of the shore, and could see it plainly, for 'twas a clear morning. To the westward about twelve leagues, by judgment, we saw a range of high land, which we took to be islands, for there were several partitions in the prospect. This land seemed to reach 14 or 16 leagues in a range, and there came thence great flocks of fowls. I and many of our men would have made this land, and have gone ashore at it, but the Captain would not permit it. The small sandy island is situated 500 leagues from *Copayapo* on the coast of *Chili*, and 600 leagues from the *Gallipagos*."

A contradictory circumstance in this account is, that, steering S. by E. ½ E., they should find themselves so far to the westward. *M. de la Peyrouse*, therefore, supposed that the land seen by *Davis* was the Island *St. Felix*, which is placed in the charts near 30° more to the eastward, and according to some in 20° 30′ south latitude: but the more important particulars of Wafer's account are corroborated by the testimony of Dampier; who writes that he was told by Captain Davis that, in the latitude of 27° S. and at the distance of 500 leagues from *Copayapo*, he saw a small sandy island, and to the westward of it a long tract of pretty high land. In going to the southward from the *Gallipagos* through the south-east trade wind, it cannot be extraordinary that a ship should be forced to the westward as far as *Easter Island*: but there is reason for suspecting the accuracy of Wafer's account of the course. *M. Fleurieu*, however, rests his proofs principally on the extent of *Easter Island* not corresponding with that of the land described by Davis; and on the small sandy island not having been seen by any other navigator, especially by *La Peyrouse*, who made *Easter Island* in a direction which he conceived favourable for that purpose. With respect to the first circumstance, as Davis did not approach within less than twelve leagues of the land to the westward, he was enabled only to make a rough estimate of its extent; and his statement does not greatly disagree from the chart of the island published with *La Peyrouse*'s voyage, which gives it a length of twelve leagues. *Easter Island*, likewise, being mountainous, would make it appear at a distance like a range of separate islands. As to the sandy island, it is well known that such little spots, but just elevated above the level of the sea, are seldom visible at more than four miles distance, and therefore are not easy to find *en passant*, from an account in which no specific bearings by compass are given. It cannot be doubted that Davis's account occasioned *Easter Island* to be seen by *Roggeween*, Cook, and *La Peyrouse*, who each searched for the land of Davis, but could discover no other than *Easter Island* in that neighbourhood. On the whole, the presumptive circumstances are so strongly in favour of *Easter Island* being the land seen by Davis, that, unless some land better answering the description shall be discovered, we cannot cease to believe in their identity.

In these dissertations, and in various other parts of the work, we find heavy charges against the English, and especially against their navigators, for national partiality. The accusation may not be altogether unfounded: but it is certainly true that the charge might be retorted on *M. Fleurieu*,—evidence of which he has *plentifully*, if not *liberally*, furnished. A similar complaint might indeed be urged against the people of every country, who have the least spark of the *amor patriæ* in their composition; yet, when it exceeds temperate bounds, it justly merits reprehension. If, however, literary and scientific men cannot divest themselves, at least in their publications, of national partialities, we are not to wonder that they should occasionally break forth in the accounts of seamen; who, from their profession, are less accustomed to ceremonious observances. *M. Fleurieu* says that 'the English, when discoveries are in question, are desirous of attributing all the honour to their own nation, and have a manner of reasoning peculiar to themselves.' English navigators, perhaps, have not been slow in claiming at least as much as they are intitled to demand: yet *M. Fleurieu* must allow that, previously to the expedition of *M. de la Peyrouse*, the exertions of the French government to promote discovery bore a very inferior proportion to those of the English government.

We come now to a memoir intitled 'Observations on the Hydrographical Division of the Globe, with alterations proposed in the nomenclature, &c.' which was read at different times of the years 7 and 8 at the National Institute, and at the Board of Longitude.

> 'My first object in these observations,' says the author, 'has been to restore the hydrographic division, the division of seas, to principles existing in nature; and to reform the qualifications, designations, and vicious denominations, which accidental circumstances, local partialities, and, very often, ignorance, have imposed on the different portions of the grand mass of waters.
>
> 'The second is to rectify the nomenclature; to designate each portion of the coast of the two Continents by its most suitable appellation;

pellation; to re-establish the particular denominations which mark the epoch of discovery, and recall the names of the discoverers; and, finally, to assign to each maritime nation that share in the honour of discovery which it is justly intitled to claim. The chart which I now publish presents only a part of the alterations under discussion: a new one will succeed, which will comprehend the whole, if the approbation of navigators and geographers, who understand and can appreciate the motives, shall sanction the proposed changes.

'The particular denominations that have been attached to the different portions of the general mass of waters, which embrace the two Continents, owe their origin either to the situation of those portions with respect to the countries bordering on the ocean which were first civilized, or to the route held by the navigators who successively discovered those seas. The Europeans, who have done every thing in geography, have made the whole subservient to Europe; and, according to them, the entire world ought to bend to this centre: thus they have called the part of the ocean which is situated to the west with respect to Europe, the *Western Ocean*: but, since to the west of this ocean there exists another land, shall we oblige the men who inhabit it, to call by the name of Western Ocean, i. e. the ocean in which the sun sets, the sea whence they always observe the sun to rise?'

The author criticizes the article *Atlantique* in the French Encyclopédie, (*Paris edit. fol.*) which is thus explained: "*Océan Atlantique.* It is thus that formerly was called, and sometimes at the present day is named, that part of the ocean which lies between Africa and America, and which is more commonly designated by the name of the North Sea." *M. Fleurieu* remarks that some of the old navigators have used the expression of *passing from the North Sea into the South Sea*, when they have sailed round Cape Horn, or through the Streights of Magellan; which, he justly observes, was a vicious mode of denomination, and was not sufficient authority to justify its being used by *D'Alembert*, who was the author of the article just quoted from the Encyclopédie.

Regarding the terrestrial globe in a general point of view, *M. Fleurieu* divides the land into two Continents, or great islands; one containing Europe, Asia, and Africa; the other, the two Americas. The term *Ocean* he considers as a collective denomination, comprehending the universality of waters which embrace the two Continents. Nevertheless, in making two grand divisions, he names the first the *Atlantic Ocean* in which he includes all the sea between the western shores of Europe and Africa, and the eastern coast of the two Americas. The second division he calls, *par excellence*, the *Great Ocean*, in which is comprehended all the sea West of America, as far North as *Behring's Streights*, and as far West as to the coast of Africa. These grand divisions, likewise, have each their divisions and subdivisions. The *Atlantic* he subdivides into *North Atlantic*, *Equinoctial Atlantic*, and *South Atlantic*.—The division into northern and southern, we think, it might be convenient to adopt: but, since only the clear open parts of the sea are considered as forming the *Atlantic*, it appears to us less necessary to distinguish separately the Equinoctial part. By its lapsing into the two others, the Equator would become the line of partition.

Following the same principle, the author subdivides the '*Great Ocean*' into three, *i. e*, the *Great Northern Ocean*; the *Great Equinoctial Ocean*; and the *Great Southern Ocean*: but he finds himself here obliged to allow a fourth division for the Indian Sea; and to make the coast of China, with the eastern coast of New Holland, the western limits of his *Grand Ocean*. 'It is with regret,' he says, 'and yielding to an abuse of language too generally adopted, that I have consented to write on my chart the name of *Indian Sea*: for with what propriety can that be called a sea, which, at its entrance, extends more than fifteen hundred geographical leagues, an opening almost equal to one quarter of the circumference of the globe? I can only acknowlege, for a sea, such a portion of the waters of the ocean as is inclosed on all sides by portions of continent; or by islands, which, forming a bason, leave one or more openings for the waters, and for vessels to communicate with the ocean.' To so restrained a signification of the word *sea*, many will object. *M. Fleurieu* might, however, have saved himself this difficulty; since, as he has consented to apply the denomination *ocean* to other portions, we see little objection to its being used here; and to allowing the sea from the eastern coast of Africa to the Asiatic islands, to retain the name of *Indian Ocean*.

We agree with the author that it is an evident impropriety, to call by the name of *Pacific* those portions of the '*Great Ocean*' which are in high latitudes; and such could not have been the intention of the original discoverer. Still more improperly does the appellation of *South Sea* apply to the northern part of the *Great Ocean*.

Here *M. Fleurieu* remarks that

> 'The southern hemisphere is the true domain of the ocean, as the northern hemisphere is of the earth. If, however, a map of the world were projected on the horizon of *Paris*, we should see the whole of the land which we name the four quarters of the world, with the exception of the sharp southern part of America, contained in one hemisphere, which might be called the Terrestrial hemisphere; while in the opposite, to which the denomination of Maritime hemisphere might well be applied, there would appear only this same

point of America, and one great continued sea, in which are scattered some insulated lands.'

We cannot take notice of all the changes proposed in the nomenclature by *M. Fleurieu.* After the general and larger divisions, he makes a circuit round the coast of the two Continents, taking into his account all the smaller seas.—To come nearer home; he proposes that the *Bay of Biscay* shall be called the *Gulf of France.*

'Recollecting (says he) that in former ages this gulf was named *Sinus gallicus*, we are not apprehensive that we shall incur the charge of being *national* in this alteration of the name; for do not the French represent the Gauls?

'The channel which separates France from England we improperly call *La Manche*, a name which would be well replaced by that of the *Canal de France;* if the English, who would have this arm of the sea regarded as a demesne of the British isles, had not been beforehand with us, and had not long since named it the *British Channel.* On both sides, the pretensions and rights, if the sea can ever be deemed exclusive property, are equally founded; and if two states, separated by nature, and yet more by rivalship, could agree in fixing on one common denomination, the sea between the two countries might be called the *Channel of France and England.*'

Another object of contention, the streights between *Dover* and *Calais*, *M. Fleurieu* has decided happily enough; by suggesting 'that the French shall continue to write on their charts *Pas* or *Détroit de Calais*, while the English continue to mark on theirs, *Streights of Dover.*'

The author objects to the name of *German Ocean* for the sea between the eastern coast of Great Britain and the Continent; and he proposes to change it for that of the *British Gulf.* 'I observe,' he says, 'that this gulf is bounded on its western side, the whole of its length, by the coasts of England and Scotland, and that the Orkney and Shetland isles are dependencies on Great Britain; while the boundaries on the eastern side are formed of heterogeneous parts,—of portions of the coasts of different nations.'—It is not usual in geography, however, to distinguish by the name of *Gulf* any portion of sea which has an open communication at each extremity with other seas.

In this reform of nomenclature, the islands of the *Great Ocean* are not neglected. They are divided into two classes,—archipelagos, and straggling or solitary islands. In the narrative of M. MARCHAND's voyage, *M. Fleurieu* has introduced a dissertation on the *Sandwich Islands;* of which he pronounces that the Spaniards were the original discoverers, and that *Owhyhee* is the island which was by them named *La Mesa.*

To elucidate the subject, two charts, one of them representing the Sandwich Islands, and the other the *Group de la Mesa*, copied from the chart found by Commodore Anson in the Spanish Galleon, and both executed on the same scale, are placed next to each other in one plate. The author's strongest argument is that *La Mesa* signifies a table; and he remarks that the summit of the mountain called *Mona Roa*, in *Owhyhee*, is Table Land. The agreement in latitude is also favourable to his hypothesis: but still there are difficulties which cannot be removed. *Owhyhee* is twenty-two degrees more west than the situation ascribed to *La Mesa*. This, however, the author treats lightly; and he asserts that a difference of twenty-two degrees is no proof against the identity of the two groupes. The *Salomon islands*, he remarks, occupied for two centuries positions on the charts so dissimilar, that the extremes differed fifty degrees: but, in this case, the disagreement was not in the longitude, but in the name being applied to different lands. *Le Maire* believed *Hope* and *Horn* islands to be the *Salomon islands*; and in the accounts of some of the early discoveries, we read of land seen in 64° S. latitude "to the N. W. of which were the *Salomon islands*." The navigators of those times were, no doubt, ill provided with the means of ascertaining their position in longitude: but we do not know any instance among the Spanish discoveries which have been recognized in late times, and where the identity of the land has been unquestionable, of the situation being misplaced in so great a degree as to countenance the belief that *Owhyhee* and *La Mesa* are the same.

By way of comparison, *M. Fleurieu* has enumerated all the particulars in which the two groupes appear to have resemblance, and which he sums up in the following words: 'Thus we see that, in order to describe the eastern groupe of the *Sandwich islands*, I have only had to repeat what I had said in describing the groupe *de la Mesa*: the same latitude, the same bearings, the same relative position of the islands among themselves, and the same number and total extent;—it is not possible to unite more characters of identity.' Perhaps, we examine with a pre-disposition not similar to that of *M. Fleurieu*, since we do not find this strong resemblance. *Owhyhee* is much more in magnitude than all the rest of the Sandwich islands taken together; and *La Mesa* is nearly equalled in size by three other islands of the same groupe. *Owhyhee* is the easternmost of the Sandwich islands: in the Spanish groupe, there are two islands to the eastward of *La Mesa*; and the islands to the westward, in their situation with respect to each other, do not correspond with the situation of the western of the *Sandwich islands*. *M. Fleurieu* says of *La Disgraciada*, that 'its not having been seen by Capt. Cook is no proof that it does not exist:' but a large island situated to the N. E., within twenty-five leagues of *Owhyhee*, could not have escaped being seen by some of the vessels trading to the N. W. coast of America, who have made it their practice between the trading seasons to visit *Owhyhee* for provisions. To obviate this objection, the author supposes it probable that *La Disgraciada* and *La Mesa* were discovered by different navigators, and consequently laid down from different reckonings. This is an acknowlegement that *M. Fleurieu* himself suspected some of his 'characters of identity.'—We shall only add on this subject, that, if it could even be proved that he was right in his conjectures, yet the position of a discovery being assigned so erroneously as to differ twenty-two degrees from the truth, the claim is in fact lost, and is left open to a future and more accurate discoverer.

The method of argument adopted by *M. Fleurieu* carries him on too smoothly: he begins with conjecture, convinces himself not unwillingly, and then assumes direct assertion, dropping all appearance of doubt, as if the case were fully established. In this manner, the *Sandwich islands* are mentioned as Spanish discoveries in the memoir on the nomenclature: but respect to the memory of Capt. Cook induces him to allow that they should retain their name of the *Sandwich islands*.

Every one must acknowlege that the present nomenclature in hydrography is incorrect, and in many instances vicious. The system proposed by *M. Fleurieu*, also, is in some parts objectionable, and in others confused; as indeed the first rudiments of a new branch of science almost constantly are, till corrected and matured by succeeding commentators. His memoir, however, contains many useful ideas. He particularly censures the custom of translating into other languages the names given by original discoverers, as being productive of much perplexity; and he instances a bay on the south coast of *Java*, which in different charts, according to the different languages, is distinguished by the various appellations of *Vleer Muys Bay*; *Flitter Mouse Bay*; and *Bai des Chauve-Souris*;—and a French translator of Dampier's voyages has altered Cape Horn into *Cap Cornu*.—We observe, *en passant*, that this censure might be applied to History as well as to Geography. The substitutes, in some languages, for the old Greek and Roman names, are equally perplexing and ludicrous.—The present author joins in the regret and indignation which has frequently been expressed at the name of America being given to the New

Continent, to the total exclusion of the name of *Columbus:* yet he thinks that this usurpation is too strongly sanctioned by time to admit of remedy. We are, nevertheless, inclined to believe that, if this were included among the proposed alterations, few would find more willing partizans, or be more readily adopted.—In the conclusion, the editor observes; 'if the force of habit would yield to reason, the geographers of different nations would be led insensibly to adopt an hydrographical division and nomenclature, which, being of no particular time, country, or people, would agree with all; and which ought to be as invariable as the principles on which they are founded.'

There now remains to be noticed the Treatise on 'the Application of the Decimal Metrical System to Hydrography, and to Nautical Calculations; proposing means to facilitate its establishment, and accompanied by tables for that purpose.' In meditating a change of such magnitude, an inquiry into the causes which originally occasioned the adoption of the sexagesimal mode of reckoning, in astronomical and geographical calculations, might with propriety have been the first consideration. *M. Fleurieu*, however, commences with a remark that the decimal is in all cases preferable to every other mode of reckoning. His words are; 'the advantage of a decimal metrical system, suitable to all countries, and applicable to all calculations, is so generally acknowleged, as promoting the facility of operations, that every one must regret that it has not been established.' —According to this position, the *desideratum* is to arrive at establishing decimal measures with the least possible inconvenience.—Before we offer farther comment, we shall briefly state the outline of *M. Fleurieu*'s plan.

1. He proposes that the circumference of the circle shall be subjected to a decimal division; and accordingly that the meridians, the parallels, and the circle of the horizon represented by that of the compass, shall be divided into 400 degrees, the degree into 100 minutes, the minute into 100 seconds, &c. Thus a degree of the decimal circle would answer to 54 minutes of the sexagesimal circle.

2dly, The diurnal revolution of the earth, at present divided into 24 hours, and the hour into 60 minutes, &c. is to be divided into ten hours, and each hour into 100 minutes, &c. Thus, one hour of the new division of the day will be equal to 2 hours and 24 minutes of the old.

3dly, The geographical league and mile are to give place to *Kilomètres*, *Miriamètres*, &c. which are to be aliquot parts of the new terrestrial degree.—All the smaller measures, with the lead line, log line, and glass, are to undergo correspondent alterations.

To facilitate the introduction of this new system, it is proposed that charts, tables, and instruments, shall previously be prepared; and that the first new charts shall be provided with scales, or graduations, of both decimal and sexagesimal parts. Tables, likewise, are calculated for the conversion of the old measures into their equivalents in the new, and *vice versâ.*

After having explained the principles of his system, the author enters into the minutiæ of the different calculations, with extraordinary patience. The unity of the metrical system he considers to be indispensably requisite in the operations of navigation, and therefore the new system should be introduced not in parts, but entire.

Such are the principal heads of *M. Fleurieu*'s plan. We agree in the general principle, that decimal arithmetic is found by experience to be the reckoning most suited to the ideas of mankind. Whether it be that, in our earliest attempts at reckoning, we naturally assist ourselves by counting with the fingers, and that thus our ideas become most habituated to decimal arithmetic; or whether it proceeds from some more hidden cause; we shall not endeavour to explain: but the fact, we believe, is universal; for we do not recollect that, among all the nations and tribes, civilized or uncivilized, of whom we have knowlege, any other than the decimal mode of reckoning has been found to prevail. Accordingly, all measures or quantities which have analogy only or principally to the unit, and which are therefore most subject to arbitrary or capricious notation, may with great convenience be reduced to decimal reckoning: but some quantities are, in their own natures, otherwise measured, and subjected to a peculiar mode of division. The day may be divided into ten parts; or reckoning by decades may be preferred to reckoning by weeks: but the year cannot be reduced into ten months; and even in its present division into twelve, it ill accords with the division of time fixed by nature. *M. Fleurieu* has himself thought it necessary to continue the division of the compass into thirty-two points.

In the circle, there is an immutable proportion established in its nature between the diameter and the circumference. The whole circumference is subtended by six chords, each of which is equal to the radius or semidiameter; and into whatever number of degrees, or parts, the circumference is divided, the measure of the one sixth part will be equal to the radius. This peculiar property of the circle seems to have marked the sexagesimal as its most natural division, and most probably occasioned that division to be originally adopted. In a decimal division of the circumference, the semidiameter must be a surd quantity. Thus, according to *M. Fleurieu's* new measure, the semi-diameter of the earth would be *66°.66′.66″.66‴*, &c.

We shall not pronounce decisively on the merits or demerits of this plan: but we must declare our apprehensions that the new system, instead of being attended with sufficient advantage to compensate for the trouble (and we must add, the expence) of the change, would prove to be less convenient in practice than the present system founded on the sexagesimal division of the circle.

In a separate volume of this publication, are placed the charts, as well those which are connected with M. Marchand's voyage, as those which are intended to illustrate the various geographical dissertations. They are neatly executed; and graduated according to the method hitherto universally practised.

The part assigned to Natural History (vol. iv. and the greater portion of vol. v.) is a compilation, purposely selected, and adapted for the use of seamen; the nature of which will be more fully explained by transcribing a few of the author's introductory remarks:

> 'A knowlege of birds, fish, and other marine productions, ought to be included in the education of the seaman; for among the number some may be regarded as natural beacons, which serve to mark the distance from land, and sometimes in unknown seas to indicate the proximity of an island, of a reef, or of banks level with the water's edge, where otherwise they would not be suspected. Others offer to the navigator a valuable supply of fresh provisions in time of need. Others are useful in commerce: and all are interesting to the curiosity of man, from the variety of means which nature has provided for the maintenance and multiplication of those organized beings with which the air and the waters are peopled.
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> 'It is serving, then, the double purpose of instructing the navigator, and satisfying his curiosity, to unite in the same sketch, the animals, the plants, and the other natural productions which so frequently present themselves to his notice in his voyages: but, in undertaking to describe the birds, the fish, and the other animals belonging to the ocean, which are destined in some measure to be the escort of navigators, I do not pretend to enter scientifically into all the minute particulars.—It will be sufficient for the seaman, to designate the exterior characters, general and particular, which serve to distinguish each genus and species; to notice the principal dimensions, the form, the predominant colour, the varieties, &c.; and to instruct him, by the experience of other navigators, in the sort of utility which may be derived from each animal, what climates they frequent, and in what seasons.
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> 'In order that my plan may be methodical without being monotonous, I shall follow the *Solide* in her navigation round the globe, and shall treat of birds, fish, plants, &c. in the same order in which they occurred during the route.'

This method of arrangement gives too much the appearance of a miscellaneous collection.

In drawing up his descriptions, *M. Fleurieu* has consulted the voyagers of different nations, the *Encyclopédies*, Chambers's Dictionary, &c. The birds, amphibious animals, and the Whale, are copied from *Buffon*. 'My labour,' says he, 'has often been confined to transcribing, and to abridging, lest more might be extracted than would suffice for the purpose which I had in view.'—For the same reason, he has confined his descriptions to animal and vegetable productions.

This kind of abridged selection has been much wanted: particularly as seamen, to whom an acquaintance with many parts of Natural History is of material use, are discouraged by large works, and especially when the greater portion does not appear necessary to them.—On a similar account, perhaps this part of the present work would have been rendered of more general benefit, if it had been so modelled as to be independent of the other volumes.

The general character of this publication will appear from the detailed account which we have given: but we shall remark in addition, that the editor has indulged himself largely in fancy and conjecture; and that, consequently, his book abounds in new ideas. *Tant pis; tant mieux.* He has likewise given more discussion to matters of little moment than seems consistent with the importance of the work, or with the depth of knowlege with which other subjects are treated. We cannot join in the commendation bestowed by the members of the *Bureau des Longitudes* on their associate, 'that the most scrupulous impartiality has dictated his proposed nomenclature:' yet we are of opinion that his labours will rank highly among those which have improved the science of geography.

ART. IX. *Les Scandinaves; &c.* i. e. The Scandinavians, a Poem, translated from the Sueo-Gothic; and followed by Observations respecting the Manners and the Religion of the antient barbarous Nations of Europe. By JOSEPH CHERADE MONTBRON. 8vo. 2 Vols. Paris. 1801. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 12s. sewed.

RESPECTING the authenticity of the original of this poem, we are not rendered competent to form a decided opinion by any information which M. MONTBRON has afforded. He states that he has translated it from the Latin version of Resennius: but he has given no particulars concerning the probable date of its composition, and seems to have designedly left the question of its origin to be canvassed and investigated by others, without condescending to throw any light on the subject. We, however, shall not enter into any critical examination of its pretensions to antiquity, because the data on which we have to proceed are few, and the importance which we attach to the decision is trifling. If, however, we may hazard an opinion on internal evidence, we shall be inclined to think that it is the production of a modern poet * rather than an antient bard; because there appears to be a studied allusion to every incident, and a pointed introduction of almost every custom, tenet of religion, trait of national character, and principle of government, which the relics of Scandinavian history and tradition contain. We meet with no passages accidentally referring to any thing which has escaped the notice of history. The work is in no instance the original source of information, relative to any exploded custom or obsolete law. Every peculiarity of manners, morals, laws, and government, to which it alludes, is studiously and cautiously sanctioned by existing records, and the acknowleged voice of tradition. From these features, we should infer that it was composed at a period in which the knowlege possessed by the author, respecting the state of society here delineated, must have been derived from the sources of history alone; and that it is, as it were, a structure erected not with materials drawn from the " living quarry," but from the scattered fragments of some antiquated ruin. We imagine, also, that we observe too little of that simplicity of thought and expression, which characterizes the early productions of northern poetry, to allow of a very early date being assigned to it; and in a variety of instances, we remark a refined turn of sentiment, an arrangement of ideas bordering on conceit, and a studied antithesis of expression, more consonant to the style of a cultivated epoch, than to the language of a ruder age.

The main fable of the work is the expulsion of Suenon king of Scandinavia, or Skone, from his dominions, by Buris king of the Vandals; with his consequent sufferings and exploits, and his final restoration. The outlines of the story are as follow:—Buris suddenly invades the territories of Suenon, assails him in his palace in the dead of the night, and compels him to seek his safety in flight. This unexpected aggression proceeded from the long-treasured-up animosity of Buris towards Suenon, for having formerly been his successful rival in glory and in love. During the life time of Othar, father of Buris, the latter was restrained from the indulgence of his hatred by the esteem and respect which Othar entertained for Suenon:—but,

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* The composition before us is in prose: but it is called a poem because, it is said, the original is in verse.

when the death of his father made way for the accession of Buris to the throne, the smothered flame burst forth, and the first act of his reign was the unexpected invasion of Scandinavia. Suenon, with his only daughter Alpais, after having encountered and escaped many difficulties and dangers, arrives in safety at the court of Harold Pulchricomus, or Haarfager, king of Norway; whose assistance the exiled monarch implores, and is promised. During their abode in the Norwegian palace, the beauty of Alpais excites the love of Harold and the jealousy of his queen. Harold offers marriage: but Suenon rejects the overtures, because the affections of his daughter are already fixed on Adelstan, the warlike son of Adelus, who was the friend of Suenon, and who, by the sacrifice of his own life, had saved that of his sovereign on the fatal night of Buris's invasion. The rejection of his overtures inflames the passion of Harold; and instigated by the counsels of his ministers, who were jealous of the influence of Suenon over their master, he resolves to take Alpais away by force: but Gidda, Harold's queen, desirous of freeing herself from a hated rival, proposes to Suenon, and contrives, the escape of Alpais from her confinement. The king of Skone and his daughter, after having passed through a variety of dangers to which they were exposed by the pursuit of Harold, arrive at last at Upsal, the capital of the Swedish monarchy; while Adelstan and Buthlus, with other Scandinavian chiefs, who had accompanied Suenon in his flight from Norway, had previously separated, in order to excite the people of Skone to assist in the restoration of their king.

Fresh dangers await the unfortunate monarch on his arrival at Upsal: a terrible insurrection rages there; and Suenon, assisting Olaus in attempting to quell it, is taken prisoner. He is on the point of being sacrificed as an atonement to the gods of the country, when the voice of Odin, sounding from his statue, saves him from destruction, and points out Olaus as the proper victim; who, from having become a convert to Christianity, had drawn on himself the hatred and rancour of the priesthood. After the murder of Olaus, Suenon contrives to escape from his confinement; and by means of Idallan, one of the Swedish Generals, he establishes the son of Olaus on his father's throne. In the mean time, Adelstan and his companions succeed in exciting the whole of Scandinavia to revolt; and Harold, jealous of the progress of Buris, marches against him to drive him from the conquered territories of Gotha and Skone.

After various fluctuations of success, in which the little army of Suenon alternately encounters the Norwegians and the Vandals; Alpais quits her father's tent by night, and seeks that of Harold; resolved to save her father's empire, and his subjects, by sacrificing herself as the wife of Harold. The Norwegian king receives her with joy, and binds himself by a solemn oath at the altar to restore Suenon to his kingdom: when, at the same time that he receives the hand of Alpais, she plunges a poignard in her breast. The wound, however, proves not to be mortal. Harold respects his oath; and finding the affections of Alpais unalterably fixed on Adelstan, he reluctantly absolves her from her marriage vows. Harold and Suenon then join their forces against the Vandals: the latter are completely routed; and Buris falls by the hand of Suenon, who thus regains possession of the throne of his ancestors.

Such are the outlines of the principal story, which is interspersed with episodes founded on some incidents in Scandinavian history.

The marvellous agency of the poem is excluded by the French translator, from an opinion that none but the gods of Olympus are worthy to be the gods of poetry. In one instance only has he admitted the appearance of a divine machine; viz. that in which Odin interferes to save Suenon from the fury of the priesthood. We think, however, that there are other conjunctures, in which the interposition of a deity might have been allowed with as much propriety and judgment as in this; since the atchievements of the heroes would not disgrace the most dignified warriors of Homer and Virgil, nor the most gallant of the knights of Ariosto and Tasso. The exploits which they perform, the difficulties which they overcome, and the dangers which they escape, sometimes seem to require the intervention of a god, or an enchanter, to give them the air of probability. If the translator had admitted a little more of the marvellous, the work would have contained rather less of the extravagant.

Most of the similies are judiciously taken from the objects and appearances belonging to a northern climate; and indeed a sombre hue, and a melancholy tint, almost peculiar to northern poetry, pervade the whole composition. In many instances, the order of time has been violated:—but, when a poem relates to events of antiquity, anachronisms are venial. The imagination loses, as it were, the intervals between remote events, as the eye perceives not the space between the distant objects of a long visto.

The copious and numerous notes at the end of the volumes will be found entertaining; since they contain an account of the principal circumstances relative to the religion, manners, and customs, of the antient people of the north.

ART. X. *Des Tombeaux*, &c. i. e. On Tombs; or, On the Influence of Funeral Institutions over Manners and Morals. By J. GIRARD. 12mo. pp. 192. Paris. 1801. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 2s. 6d. sewed.

IN a country in which every salutary principle of religion has been ridiculed and vilified, and in which, at one period, the doctrine that death was an eternal sleep constituted the main article of the popular creed, it is not surprizing that the religious ceremonies belonging to the burial of the dead should have been slighted and despised; and that a most disgusting indifference and carelessness should have attended the whole process of consigning the body to the grave. That this was the case in France, we learn from the present publication:—but, when the rigour of infidel intolerance abated, the service was conducted with somewhat more propriety and decorum. The National Institute gave the first example of that respect for the dead which is so congenial to human feelings, by attending the funereal procession of Citizen *Dewailly*. At the same time, it invited all citizens to communicate their ideas relative to funeral ceremonies and places of sepulture. In consequence, the production before us was one of the essays which were delivered; and we are told that it received very flattering marks of approbation from the society, though it did not intitle its author to the prize.

In the introduction, the writer describes, with a considerable degree of pathos and eloquence, the feelings which are excited by the death of those who were dear to us. He derives, from the excess of sorrow on such an occasion, the consoling idea of the immortality of the soul, and the origin of funereal worship, of apotheoses, and of that religious respect which all people have entertained for the deceased. He then points out the dangers to be avoided in the establishment of sepulchral institutions; which dangers are, superstition on the one hand, and the tenet of materialism, or annihilation, on the other; and he dwells with great earnestness of language, on the folly, absurdity, and fatal effects of the latter doctrine.

It should seem, from this publication, that atheistical philosophy, after having weakened, if not altogether destroyed, the influence of religion, and having witnessed the lamentable issue of its own success in the extreme depravity and corruption of morals, was at last convinced of the necessity of something besides the force of law, and the controul of civil government, to maintain the harmony of society: but that, too proud to acknowlege the fitness of religion for this end, it was desirous of establishing some principle in its room; of converting the propensity of the French for pomp, parade, and show, into a succedaneum for devout feelings; and of instituting decadal festivals, civic liturgies, and municipal masses, in the room of the catholic ceremonies.

In the first chapter, M. GIRARD proposes that the death of every citizen should be announced in the municipal assemblies in each decade, and his name inscribed in the register:—that proper officers should be chosen from those who were most distinguished for their morals and fortune, to regulate the funereal institutions, to watch over the decorum of the processions, to pronounce the eulogia of the dead, and to fulfil towards them the last duties, in the name of the social body to which they belonged;—and, in order to avoid any accident from a too hasty interment, to intrust the medical person, who attended the deceased, with the power of fixing the time of burial: uniting with him proper individuals, whose office it should be to visit the dead, and to make a report of all circumstances. He proposes, also, that the house of the deceased should be open and free of access: that a black cloth should be hung at the door; and that, if the poverty of the defunct, or the situation of his residence, should prevent this public exhibition, he should be carried to a place of deposit set apart for that purpose;—leaving it, however, entirely to the option of the family whether he shall be so removed or not.

In the 2d chapter, he suggests the plan of a procession; which we should feel more disposed to recommend to the ballet-master of an opera-house, than to a legislature.

Chap. 3d enumerates the various methods employed by different nations, for disposing of the bodies of the dead; and recommends that every commune should have a place of public sepulture, at a distance from any habitations: the choice of which should be made according to the report of medical men, who are to examine the nature and disposition of the soil, and the usual currents of air; preference being always given to solitary places, sheltered by rising grounds, and watered by streams, to encourage a vegetation capable of absorbing all noxious vapours. M. GIRARD advises to surround the place of burial with a wall, or ditch, in order to protect it from injury and insult; and with thick trees, to conceal it from observation.—To shew with what reverence the French at present treat their places of sepulture, we are informed, in a note, that over the gateway of the burying-ground belonging to the church of St. Sulpice in Paris, this Latin inscription has been placed: "*Has ultra metas requiescunt beatam spem expectantes;*" that immediately above are the following words, in transparent rose color, "*Bal des Zephyrs;*" and that every evening, music and dancing take place among the tombs.— In the subsequent part of this chapter, after having objected to the plan of a pantheon as a place of deposit for the remains of great men, the author recommends that the legislature shall erect the monuments of such characters in private places, near the scenes of their exertion and activity.

The last chapter relates to funereal festivals, mourning dresses, and monumental records. In the establishment of funereal festivals, the author proposes the adoption of two ceremonies belonging to the catholic worship: but, in compliance with the spirit which prevails in France, they are to be stripped of every religious form and appendage, and to be transferred from the hand and presidency of the priesthood to those of the civil power.

Art. XI. *Promenade d'un Français en Suède et en Norvège.—i. e.* The Rambles of a Frenchman in Sweden and Norway. By De Latocnaye. 8vo. 2 Vols. Brunswick. 1801. Imported by De Boffe, London. Price 10s. sewed.

Recollecting the pleasure which we have formerly received from accompanying this lively Emigrant Officer in his *Promenades* *, we took up the present volumes with the expectation of being agreeably amused, and we have not been in any degree disappointed. M. de Latocnaye not only rambles with his eyes open, but with his whole soul *on the alert*; he relates occurrences with intelligence and sprightliness; and, in a manner truly French, he diffuses a pleasantry over the whole of his narrative. War having so disturbed and desolated the fairest regions of Europe as to make travelling in them uncomfortable and dangerous, M. de L. turned his steps towards Sweden and Norway, which were then far removed from the theatre of destruction. Warned by rumours and symptoms of rebellion, he quitted Ireland, (which was the last scene of his peregrinations,) not wishing to involve himself in its troubles; and in his way to those northern kingdoms which he meditated to explore, he visited for a third time his friends in Scotland: which country he takes every opportunity of designating by its native appellation of the *Land of Cakes.* With all his partiality for this part of our island, however, he could not, as a Catholic, relish the prayer offered by the Clergy of the Scotch Church, for the total destruction of

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* See M. Rev. N. S. vol. xvii. p. 521. vol. xxiii. p. 587. vol. xxvi. p. 208. and vol. xxxi. p. 445. New editions of these works have been printed.

Popery; which, with ironical italics, he calls *charitable*:—but, if he smiles at the zeal of the Kirk against the *scarlet whore of Babylon*, he gratefully notices the hospitable and flattering reception which he experienced in that country.

A fleet sailing for the Baltic under convoy of two ships of war, M. DE L. took his passage on board a merchantman bound for Gothenburg; where he arrives without accident, and with the description of which town his *promenade* commences.

'Immediately (says he) on passing the fort of Elfsburg, the eye is particularly attracted by the banks of the river; on which a number of wooden houses, painted red, and scattered up and down on rocks of granite, indicate considerable industry. The effect produced at the entrance of the river Götha brought to my recollection those Chinese paintings, in which we see at once houses built on large rocks and among trees, vessels gliding along, and fat old fellows smoking their pipes with all imaginable tranquillity and gravity!

'The town is very well built, and partakes of the taste of its first founders, the Dutch, in being every where intersected by canals. Excepting the new quarter, and some buildings on the quay, all the houses are of wood; and though we generally form very poor ideas of such dwellings, these are very commodious, and warmer in winter than those which are built with stone. Their construction is very simple, being formed with squared fir trees placed one on the other, pinned together, and the interstices filled with moss; the outside is covered with planks painted red or white, and the inside with plaster. The country people thatch the roof with the bark of the birch tree, over which they lay turf; while persons of property employ tile or slate; and these modes are prevalent through all Sweden and Norway. Such houses appear to me to be more convenient for the common people than those of stone, brick, or earth; because they are more easily built, are more warm, and can be removed from place to place without much difficulty.

'The commerce of Gothenburg, which is extensive, is carried on by many respectable merchants, the principal of whom is Mr. Hall. To this gentleman, strangers are generally recommended, and are much indebted for his politeness and hospitality. Many Scotch houses are established here, and are very flourishing. The manufactures of the country are few, but excellent of their kind: sugar, for instance, is better refined in Sweden than any where else, but it is dear. Near the coast is a glass-house, the manufacture of which is very beautiful:—but the merchants of Gothenburg, and throughout Sweden, are principally engaged in the exportation of metals, chiefly iron; which is a very productive commerce.

'Herrings visit the coast towards the month of November, in such shoals that boats pass through them with difficulty; and if an oar be put into the sea, it will stand as upright among them as if it were stuck in the sand. This trade is considered as so important, that every precaution is taken to prevent the fish from being frightened from the coast; and as soon as they appear, it is expressly forbidden to fire any cannon, even for the usual salutes. In a good year, 600,000 barrels of salted herrings are sold, and 30,000 barrels of oil.

'Nearly all the articles of importation, which are considerable, come from England, and sell very well. Indeed, the communication between the two countries is such, that most people of condition in Gothenburg have even their shoes from London, or from some other town of Great Britain. The stuffs and leather which are brought thence are not only of a superior quality, but cheaper than the manufactures of the country.'

These circumstances may serve to account for the late reluctance of Sweden to break the bonds of amity with Great Britain; and they are flattering testimonies in favour of our manufactures and commercial exertions.

M. DE L. is happy not only in finding that Sweden, as well as Scotland, is *the Land of Cakes*, but in observing a resemblance between the people of the two kingdoms; especially in their languages, which have many words in common. As he advances into the country, he notices with satisfaction the comfortable state of the peasantry, who are tolerably clothed, and the inside of whose cottages are clean.—Before he quits the town of Gothenburg, where Miss Wollstonecraft landed in her visit to these Northern states, and who published an account of them in *Letters written during a short residence in Sweden, Norway, and Denmark* *, he offers strictures on this lady's book of travels, and glances his ridicule on her *Rights of Woman*. Though he allows that her letters contain many facts, he charges them with much exaggeration; and with scandalizing the Swedes as *generally addicted to drunkenness*, when on the whole they are remarkable for their sobriety. We take it for granted that his opportunities of ascertaining the customs and manners of the people were superior to those of Miss W, and that his picture of them must therefore be more correct. He states, with that Lady, that the Swedes are great eaters; and also that it is their custom, before they sit down to table, to take a glass of brandy, which they call *Sup*, in order to create an appetite: which *sup* is followed by a short prayer, similar (we suppose) to our *grace*: but he says that, during and after dinner, little wine is taken. 'When (he observes) a person receives an invitation to dinner, he finds the table splendidly covered, but he gets nothing to drink. Often, at the entertainments of the rich, one bottle is placed near the master of the house, which he keeps in that position, and suffers the glass to stand by it as if it contained liquid gold.' In order to ridicule the extreme sobriety of the Swedes, he humorously remarks, on seeing at Gripsholm a silver statue representing Gustavus Adolphus, with a large glass in his hand, that, if Gustavus were to appear at Stockholm with this large glass, he would find scarcely any thing to fill it, except the water of the lake Mäler, or small beer.

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* See M. Rev. vol. xx. p. 251. N. S.

From Gothenburg, M. DE LATOCNAYE proceeded to the wonderful cascade and canal of *Trolhata*, and to the rocks of *Halleberg* and *Hunneberg*. The summit of the latter commands the great Lake *Wener*, at the extremity of which stands the town of Wenersburg, situated like Geneva; where the water of the lake discharges itself, and forms a river resembling the Rhône not merely in the cascade of Trolhata, but also in losing itself during part of its course in subterraneous cavities, or among porous strata.

At p. 50. he mentions some curious circumstances respecting another great Swedish lake, viz. the *Wetter*, which, in one particular, resemble also what has been related concerning the lake of Geneva, though others are peculiar to itself:

> 'Being at Jönköping, situated at the head of the lake, I saw the waters agitated by a violent tempest and the waves running high, though the weather was serene, and the little lakes in its vicinity were tranquil and unruffled: even those, which were separated from it only by the small tongue of land on which the town is built, remained in the most perfect calm. This suddeu agitation of the lake is usually attributed to subterraneous wind attempting to make its escape.
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> 'When, in the winter, the water of this lake is frozen to a thickness sufficient to permit carriages to pass on it, the same subterraneous wind, which in summer excites tempests, breaks the ice on a sudden, and endangers the lives of those who are upon it. It happens sometimes that the ice melts all at once, and also disappears. The inhabitants, however, have fortunately remarked that these tempests are preceded by a subterraneous noise, which gives them sufficient warning to retire.'

This lake is of great depth: in some places, it is said, soundings cannot be obtained; and the water is singularly transparent. The author properly laughs at an idea entertained by some fanciful persons, that this lake has a subterraneous communication with that of Constance.

Wonders being once made the *order of the day*, it is difficult to know where to stop; and travellers fill up their own observations with the tales told by the inhabitants. We are here informed that, some miles to the south of Grenna, in the parish of Marbäck, is an island called *Röd-holman* (the red island) in the lake Ralôngen, which sometimes rises to the surface of the water, and at others keeps at the bottom; and the periods at which this whimsical island has made its appearance are enumerated.

merated. The last time of its coming to the surface was on the 10th of August, and it remained floating till the 9th of November, when it plunged to the bottom. Believers in the existence of the *Kraken* will perhaps doubt whether this be an island, and will suppose it to be one of these vast aquatic animals.

Proceeding from *Grenna*, the traveller visited *Wadstena*; the much frequented mineral waters of *Medewi*; *Skeninge*, the antient capital of Ostrogothland; *Linköping*, where he observed the only specimen of Gothic architecture (as it is called) in the land of the Goths; *Norköping*, which is the third town of Sweden; the forges of *Finspang*, which are compared to the works of the Carron Company in Scotland; *Soder-Telge*;—and at last, after having traversed woods, rocks, and lakes, he reached *Stockholm*, the capital. He describes this city as very romantically situated, at the junction of the lake Mäler with the Baltic, and as built on a number of little isles of rock and gravel, which are conveniently united by bridges. In a better climate, this situation, M. de L. observes, would be inestimable: but even as it is, these circumstances render it truly superb and *unique*. He notices, in detail, the King's Palace, the Library, the Museum, the Arsenal, &c.: but he is too sprightly to stoop to the dull task of copying the catalogues of their contents. In mentioning the Opera-house, he comments on the miserable state of the drama in Sweden; which he represents as far behind England in this particular. He thinks that *we* have been prevented from attaining *perfection* in the dramatic art, by having adhered too closely to Shakspeare as a model; who, though possessing (he is good enough to allow) a most superior genius, followed no rule, and flourished at a period in which the arts and sciences were in their infancy. He has been imitated, says this writer, with success in the irregularity of his pieces, but not in those beautiful passages which could only be the fruit of his own genius.—This we believe to be exactly the idea of the French in general, respecting the English stage.

Having travelled in England, M. de L. is perpetually contrasting the Swedish manners with our own. To exemplify the *froideur* of the Swedish character, he relates the manner in which the King and Queen are received at the Opera, where they enter without the smallest acclamation; and he says that they come in and bow to the audience, but that the latter make no compliment in return. 'What (he then adds) would the *Good King of England* say if his phlegmatic subjects were to receive him in this manner?'—This loyal traveller is not less disgusted with the custom of the men kissing each other when they meet, not only on the ear or cheek, but even on the lips. The women also kiss each other: but this is not so displeasing as to see men kissing men. To these customs, however, we must not attach the idea of effeminacy, for M. DE L. describes the Swedes as a fine race of men; and he says that the women often possess such figure, beauty, and grace as render them truly *séduisantes*, and are rarely to be seen in any other country.

In the account of *Drotningholm*, near Stockholm, where the King has a fine palace ornamented with busts and statues, of which Gustavus Adolphus plundered Germany, the traveller introduces a humorous description of a Swedish marriage; in which it is the custom for the Priest, who performs the ceremony, to dance at the ball with the bride.

Speaking of the four orders in the State, viz. the Nobles, the Clergy, the Citizens, and the Peasants, the author observes that, of all the governments established on earth, that of Sweden is the only one which has called this last class to sit in the Assembly of the Nation. As a French Royalist, he does not much admire this part of the Swedish constitution; for, though he allows that the interest of the lower classes ought to be consulted, he denies their right to intermeddle with public affairs.—Notwithstanding all the privileges of the nobles, they are represented as the most discontented set of people in Sweden.

Resolving to be present at the great fair at *Oerebro*, M. DE LATOCNAYE makes the tour of the *Mäler* lake, crosses it on the ice, (which, he observes, is so very transparent that he seemed, while travelling over it, to be playing the part of St. Peter,) and examines the forges and manufactures of steel at *Eschilstuna*. As these vulcanian operations are well known, we shall not transcribe the description here given of the process of converting iron into steel; only observing that the quantity of wood, employed in the operation in Sweden, gives the steel a superior quality.—The pleasures of a large fair, may be easily guessed by our readers. At a Swedish fair, *dancing* and *smoking* are in full activity.

When M. DE L. commenced his promenade to the country of mines, (Jan. 20, 1800) he found the weather so tormentingly cold that he wonders not that the antient Goths and Scandinavians placed their hell in the ice. Hence he speaks of *un froid d'enfer*, in which he was afraid of blowing his nose, lest he should leave it in his pocket-handkerchief: the thermometer then standing only 4 degrees above the point at which quicksilver freezes. A journey under such circumstances must furnish details of personal inconveniencies, rather than instructive information respecting the country. Wrapped up in furs and other coverings, in a sledge drawn over the snow, the traveller sees little, and has nothing to relate except his own feelings, and the constant danger of his being frozen to death.

Availing himself of his visit to the University of *Upsal*, this entertaining rambler sate down to study the history of the countries which he is exploring; and though he seeks no academic honours, he exhibits himself in the character of a professor, by learnedly disserting "On the antient religion of Thor, and on the Manners, History, and Language of the antient people of these countries." We must pass over these episodical discussions, though they manifest ingenuity, and would be entertaining to the antiquary.

Leaving *Upsal*, the traveller visited *Sigtuna*, the antient capital, and then returned to *Stockholm*. Having obtained letters of recommendation from the Archbishop of *Upsal*, he now prepared to explore the distant governments, during the summer. He observes that, in consequence of his general letters to the clergy, his journey was like an episcopal visitation: only with this difference, that he saw men as they really were, while bishops see them only as they ought to be. This summer excursion commenced on the 21st of May. He now rambles with comfort; the nights are *superb;* and the morn is enlivened by the song of the lark. He pays a second visit to Sir Alexander Seton, recommends his farm to the attention of travellers, describes a substitute for bread which the Swedes in times of scarcity make from the root of the chicory, and mentions a wild anemony, the flowers of which are used by the Swedes instead of cantharides.

The silver mine of *Sala*, with M. DE L.'s descent into it in a bucket, to the depth of 600 feet, is pleasingly described: but the iron mine at *Dannemora* is pointed out as the true Potosi of Sweden. This mine, whence comes the best iron in Europe, consists of enormous rocks, which seem to be entirely of iron, and which require only to be broken in order to obtain the mineral. A prodigious excavation, more than 2000 feet in circumference, and at the depth of 800 feet, has been made. A description then follows of the copper mines (900 feet deep) and the foundery at *Falun:* which, with an account of the customs of the Dalecarlian peasants, we must pass over.

The last chapter of the first volume gives an account of the great valley of Dalecarlia; of the number, dialect, and prejudices of the inhabitants; of the manufacture of porphyry at *El-dal*; of the four great villages; and of *Mora*. At some distance from this last village, is the cave in which Gustavus Vasa was obliged to hide himself:—this spot a French Emi-

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seducing manners, which make the society of the ladies so cherished and cultivated as it is in more populous countries.'

We congratulate M. DE LATOCNAYE on having returned to his native land, quietly to travel henceforwards by his own fire-side; where he promises to recollect, with gratitude, the kindness and civilities which he experienced from foreigners during his rambles.

As we shall probably meet this traveller again in an English dress, we may have a farther opportunity of paying our respects to him.

ART. XII. *Mémoires de l'Institut National, &c. i. e.* Memoirs of the National Institute of Arts and Sciences at Paris. Vol. II.

[*Article concluded from the last Appendix*, p. 470—483.]

WE have already presented to our readers an account of the papers contained in two of the three divisions of this volume, and are now to attend to the remaining part, which relates to the

MATHEMATICAL *and* PHYSICAL SCIENCES,

and which of itself forms a volume of above 500 pages.

The *History* of the Class opens with a chapter on *Astronomy*. By a comparison of the observations of the Chaldeans with those of modern times, *Mayer*, Dunthorne, and other astronomers confirmed the remark of Halley that there was an acceleration in the moon's mean motion. This fact received additional support from the observations of three eclipses made at Cairo in the tenth century, by Ibn Junis; and hence these three eclipses became matter of great interest to astronomers. The manuscript, from which the account of them had been extracted, being now in the national library at Paris, M. *Causin* (Professor of Arabic) has given a translation of it; and to the three eclipses already known he has added five-and-twenty more, which farther confirm the fact of the acceleration of the mean motion, and shew the extraordinary coincidence of theory and observation. The theory, viz. the explanation of the acceleration of the mean motion, and of the secular inequality of the apogee and nodes, is due to M. *de la Place*. This sublime geometrician had the honour of solving that which baffled the most able calculators, and of thus putting (if we may so express ourselves) a finishing hand to the system of Newton.

In the report before us, are given the twenty-eight eclipses, the observations of the equinoxes, the solstice, the obliquity of the ecliptic, and the elements of the tables of the Sun and Moon of Ibn Junis, hitherto unpublished.

Analysis.—Report of M. M. Le Gendre and La Grange on two Memoirs of Analysis, by Professor *Burmann*.——The report of these two mathematicians is confined to the second memoir of Prof. *Burmann*; which, in the estimation of its author, is the most valuable. The theorem of Taylor was if X be any function of x, and X^{o}, $X^{\prime}$, $X^{\prime\prime}$, $X^{\prime\prime\prime}$, &c. be what X $\frac{dX}{dx}$, $\frac{d^{2}X}{dx^{2}}$, &c. respectively become when $x=o$, then $X=X^{o} + \frac{xX^{\prime}}{1.} + \frac{x^{2}}{1.2}X^{\prime\prime} + \frac{x^{3}}{1.2.3}X^{\prime\prime\prime} +$ &c.

M. *Burmann* has generalized this formula in some degree; and he finds that

$$X = X^{o} + \frac{\xi X^{\prime}}{1} + \frac{\xi^{2}}{1.2}X^{\prime\prime} + \text{\&c.}$$

X^{n} being $= \frac{d^{n}X}{d\xi^{n}}$, and ξ being a given function of x.

He next presents a second formula; which, however, does not differ essentially from one suggested by *La Grange* in the Berlin Memoirs for 1769, and which may easily be derived from that of *La Place* in the Memoirs of the Academy for 1777.

Several other formulæ are given by the Professor, which the learned Reporters announce as either entirely new or under a new form; and accordingly they adjudge that the memoir is worthy of being printed in the volumes of the *Savans Etrangers*.

Physics.—Report on the Project of a Metalic Thermometer, presented by M. Regnier.——This thermometer consists of two blades of copper, curved in such a manner that their concavities are turned to each other. When the metal expands, its effect is sensibly shewn in the variation of the distance between the vertices of the bent blades; and some machinery, with an index, marks the increase and decrease of contraction.

Report on the Measure of the Meridian of France, and on the Results which have been deduced to determine the Bases of a new Metrical System.——This is a curious and important paper, respecting means which have been employed to carry into execution a great and magnificent project of the Academy of Sciences; viz. that of determining the unity of measure by some natural and unalterable standard, and of constructing a system of weights and measures on a plan at once regular and easy. To this object, the views of the Academy had been long directed; the theory and experiments of *Huygens* on the simple pendulum first suggested the idea of an unnalterable measure;

and among the plans proposed, the length of the pendulum vibrating seconds was thought to offer a natural and ascertainable unity :—but the variation of expansion in the pendulum, and especially the difficulty of determining the exact distance between the point of suspension, caused this plan to be rejected. At length, the fourth part of the terrestrial meridian, the distance between the equator and the north pole, was chosen as the base of the metrical system ; and the ten millionth part of the distance was taken as the unity of measures. This unity the French call *metre*, which term is equally applied to the measure of surfaces and those of solid contents ; taking for the unity of the former the square of ten times the linear metre, and for that of contents the cube of the tenth part of the metre.—For an unity of weight, the quantity of distilled water contained in the above-mentioned cube was taken ; and the multiples or parts of every kind of measure were to proceed according to the decimal notation.

Previously to the time of Newton, the arc of the meridian comprehended between Dunkirk and Perpignan had been measured ; and from this mensuration, the fourth of the terrestrial meridian had been computed. In order to be assured of the real length of this meridian, the Academy proposed a new mensuration of the meridian traversing France, which was to commence from the Frontiers, and to be extended to Barcelona. This proposal was adopted by the National Assembly ; and they committed the execution of the plan to M. M. *Mechain*, *Delambre*, and *Lefevre Gineau* : the two former were to be employed solely in measuring the distance ; while the researches of the latter were to be confined to the determination of the unity of weight.

The present report contains an account of the methods employed in the mensuration of the meridional arc, of the instruments, of the precautions, corrections, &c. and of the fatigues and difficulties with which the operation was accompanied. The account is very interesting and instructive ; and it will convince those who may be inclined to perceive merit only in the mere theoretical project of the mensuration, that its actual execution required no ordinary talents, but was something beyond a business of mechanical dexterity and systematic drudgery.

Chemistry.—Report of the Results of some Experiments made by M. Clouet relative to iron in different States, and to the Conversion of Iron into cast Steel.——M. M. *Guyton* and *Darcet*, to whom the composition of this Report was intrusted, very truly observe that scarcely more than twelve years have elapsed since the composition of steel, consisting of iron and carbon, was discovered by *Vandermonde*, *Berthollet*, and *Monge*, as stated under the article *Acier* in the *Encyclopédie Méthodique*.—M. *Clouet* finds that one thirty-second of carbon added to the iron is sufficient to compound steel; that one-sixth of carbon renders the steel more fusible, while it is still malleable: but that, with a greater proportion of carbon, the compound approximates to cast iron. With still more carbon, the fusibility of the iron is increased; and by again augmenting the carbon, it becomes mere grey cast iron. His grand discovery, however, is supposed to be that, *at a high temperature, iron has so great an affinity for carbon as to take it from oxygen; and hence it decompounds carbonic acid.* The experiment designed to prove this decomposition must be related. Put into a crucible, iron cut into small pieces, with a mixture of equal parts of chalk and clay; expose it to a fire of temperature sufficient to weld iron; keep up that fire for an hour; and the melted mass will be found to be cast steel. On the ground of this result, M. *Clouet* proceeds to explain the manufacture of iron and of steel. He shews that oxide of iron and carbon afford soft iron, cast steel, white cast iron, and grey cast iron, according to their proportions to one another; as was the case with cast iron and oxide of iron,—with cast and forged iron,—with oxide of iron and forged iron,—and with oxide of iron and steel, according to their proportion. It requires but a fifth of cast iron to render iron into steel; and a sixth of oxide of iron brings back steel to the state of soft iron.—Thus it appears that steel, equal to Huntsman's and Marshall's celebrated manufacture, may be fabricated without the air of carbon, by means of carbonic acid, or of cast iron.

We have often heard of these curious experiments of M. *Clouet*; the result of which is very different in the case of the decomposition of carbonic acid by iron, which is altogether contrary to the supposed established order of elective attractions;—and we shall be desirous of learning whether the experiments are confirmed by our countrymen, some of whom (to our knowlege) have already repeated them without success.

Report concerning some newly invented Crayons.——The inventor of these crayons is M. *Conté*, who has been induced to attempt the discovery in consequence of the difficulty of obtaining crayons from England and Germany during the present war. The composition, we are told, is quite new; and the paste, of which the crayons are made, imitates and even surpasses native plumbago. A particular description could not be given to the Institute, without prejudice to the interests of M. *Conté*, which imperiously demand secrecy.

Medicine and Surgery.—An Examination of the Stomach of a Person who was poisoned by Opium. By *Peter Lassus.*——A melancholy female swallowed 36 grains of opium, which in a few hours produced symptoms of apoplexy. Ipecacuanha could not make her vomit, and she died in the course of 10 or 11 hours. On dissection, the stomach was found inflamed, but without erosion. The intestines were filled with gas, and were also inflamed: but no other morbid appearance was found, except three calculi in the gall bladder, which had never produced any symptoms.

Enumeration of the Patients who had been afflicted with Urinary Calculi, and have been received into the Hospital of Luneville.——In forty-years, 1629 patients have been admitted into this charity; of whom 1564 were males and 65 were females. Of this number, 147 died. By far the greater proportion of patients were between 4 and 8 years old. The youngest was one year, and the oldest 68 years of age.

Tumefaction of all the Bones of an Adult; communicated by M. Saucerotte.——Previously to the disease, the subject weighed 58 kilogrammes, and at a certain period he weighed 88 kilogrammes.

Report concerning the Vertigo which affects Post-Horses, and the Question, Whether or not it be contagious and epizootic?——This disorder is attributed, from dissection, to a derangement of the functions of the abdominal viscera, or to a slow and long continued indigestion; and it is concluded from facts that it is not a contagious but an epizootic disease.

Notices of the Life and Writings of M. Pelletier. By M. *Lassus.*——*Bertrand Pelletier* was born at Bayonne in 1764, and died at Paris at the age of 36 years. He was educated by his own father in pharmacy, and by *Darcet* in chemistry. He distinguished himself, when 25 years old, by his researches concerning the acid of arsenic. He also wrote on the artificial crystallization of sulphur, and of cinnabar—on phosphorus—on the crystallization of deliquescent salts—on oxygenated muriatic acid—and on æthers, particularly the muriatic and acetous. He gave various analyses, and made several experiments on metallic phosphures;—he likewise wrote on refining bell-metal to obtain the copper pure for money—on a blue pigment from copper—and published experiments on strontian.

Notices of the Life and Writings of M. Pierre Bayen.——The subject of this paper was born at Châlons in 1725. In 1749, he served under *Charas* in pharmacy. He gave analyses of the mineral waters of France; and he wrote memoirs on marbles, serpentine stones, porphyries, granites, jaspars, schists, and iron spar. He doubted the existence of the phlogiston of Stahl; and by operating on mercurial precipitates, he found that what are called metallic oxides owe their state, when obtained by calcining metals, to the absorption of one of the constituent ingredients of atmospheric air.—This chemist also discovered the fulminating property of metals when mixed with a very little sulphur; and he shewed that tin was not necessarily contaminated by arsenic;—that what is used by potters contains copper and antimony, by which it is rendered hard; zinc, by which it is whitened,—bismuth, by which it is rendered sonorous,—and lead, in order to diminish the price. He died aged 72 years.

PHYSICAL, MEDICAL, *and* CHEMICAL MEMOIRS.

On living and fossil Elephants. By M. CUVIER.——It appears from this paper that there exist at least *two* distinct species of elephants; differing in their native climate, in manners, and in structure. There are the *Elephas capensis, fronte convexâ, lamellis molarium rhomboidalibus;*—and the *Elephas indicus, fronte plano-concavâ, lamellis molarium arcuatis undatis.*

The unknown species in a fossil state are the *Elephas mammonteus, maxillâ obtusiore, lamellis molarium tenuibus rectis;* and the *Elephas Americanus, molaribus multi-cuspidibus, lamellis post detritionem quadri lobatis.* Five plates accompany this memoir.

Report on a Memoir by M. Martin, relative to the Culture of Spice Trees in French Guiana. By M. M. JUSSIEU and DESFONTAINES.——As this inquiry cannot be interesting to English readers, we shall only observe that, from the circumstances here stated, it appears that French Guiana is able to furnish the mother country with spices, and with a great variety of woods and plants of the most useful kind. The same observations apply to the subsequent paper, viz.

Memoir on the Introduction of several useful Plants into the French Colonies in America, particularly Guiana; and on the success or failure of the attempt to cultivate them. By LOUIS CLAUDE RICHARD.

Memoir on a Fracture of the Sternum. By. M. SABATIER. ——This fatal accident was occasioned by a loaded carriage running over a person, by which the sternum and two false ribs of the left side were fractured. The dissection is given with accuracy; and a number of pathological observations are related, which our limits do not allow us to extract.

Observations on a Disease of Trees, and particularly of the Elm, (Ulmus campestris, Linn.) analogous to Ulceration. By M. VAUQUELIN.——Old trees are often attacked by a disease which may be called ulceration, and which begins in the bark and extends to the solid parts; producing a real caries, attended by effusions or discharges, till suppuration ensues. Sometimes, these ulcers heal, and leave excrescences like exostoses.

From experiments made on the diseased fluids above named, collected from elms, the result was that 4 ounces, 7 gros, 46 grains of the *white diseased bark* afforded 3 ounces, or 0,605 of vegetable matter; 5 gros, 36 grains, or 0,340 of carbonate of potash mixed with sulphate of potash; 2 gros, or 0,051 of carbonate of lime; and 10 grains, or 0,004 of carbonate of magnesia.—The *black diseased bark*, in quantity 4 ounces, 7 gros, 46 grains, yielded one ounce, 5 gros, 36 grains, or 51,536 grammes of carbonate of potash; which is proportional to 151,478 grammes obtained by the combustion of 50 pounds of the wood of this elm. This carbonate of potash contains a peculiar vegetable matter, analogous to mucus, being soluble in water, and indissoluble in spirit of wine: but it is precipitated from its solution in acids, which mucus is not.

It is a matter of great curiosity to know in what manner the potash, the lime, the magnesia, and the black matter, have been thus accumulated, in one diseased part of a vegetable.

Experiments on Detonation by Percussion. By M. M. FOURCROY and VAUQUELIN.——In 1786, *Berthollet* discovered the superoxymuriate of potash; and this discovery, in its application to practice, produced fulmination, by which two persons fell victims at the manufactory of Essone, in October 1788. Its property of emitting sparks was known to *Lavoisier*, as well as that of inflammation on trituration with sulphur; and *Pelletier* found out its remarkable effects on sulphuric acid. In the present memoir, these properties are ascertained with more precision, and some new facts are related.

On a Motion which may be observed in the Spinal Marrow. By M. PORTAL.——M. M. *Lamure* and *Haller* have happily discovered by experiments on living animals, that the cause of the motion of the brain was the flowing of the blood to the brain during expiration; which flowing not taking place during inspiration, the brain is not then at all raised up. In fact, during the time of expiration, the trunks of the *venæ cavæ*, in the chest, are compressed; and the blood, which ought to flow into them in order to pass to the heart, not only does not pass there with the same facility as in inspiration, (during which that compression on the *venæ cavæ* does not prevail,) but it flows into the subclavian veins, which are distended as well as the jugular veins, and into the brain, which communicates with them: then the sinuses are distended with blood, while the vertebral arteries and the numerous branches of the carotids in the brain continue to receive blood from the heart, and are thus much dilated;—and hence the swelling of the brain visible in infants, and in morbid openings of the cranium. M. PORTAL, however, now observes that the part of the spinal marrow, in which we sometimes easily see a canal communicating with the 4th ventricle of the brain, is equally susceptible of swelling during expiration. In the cases of *spina bifida*, this swelling is very manifest during expiration, and especially in violent breathing. A canal full of water has also been found in the spinal marrow, communicating with the ventricles of the brain; which were also full of water.

On the Properties of pure Baryt, and its Analogies with Strontian. By M. M. FOURCROY and VAUQUELIN.——The chemical world was first informed by M. *Berthollet*, how to procure the fixed alkalies pure by solution in alcohol. M. VAUQUELIN indicated the mode of obtaining baryt quite pure, by exposing nitrate of baryt in a porcelain vessel to the fire, so as to drive off the nitrous acid; when there remains behind the pure and most caustic baryt, of which cold water dissolves 0,04 of its weight, and boiling water dissolves its own weight. This earth so prepared, and strontian, are the only earths which have the property of crystallization. Oxalic acid precipitates baryt: but the precipitate re-dissolves, and crystallizes; which circumstance affords a method of separating baryt from lime, the oxalate of which is insoluble, even with excess of acid. Chiefly from the resemblance between baryt and strontian in solubility and crystallizability, it was supposed that these two earths were in reality not distinct species: but that carbonate of strontian and of baryt differed from one another in the proportion of carbonic acid, and in being differently crystallized.—We beg leave to remark that subsequent experiments have shewn decisive specific differences between these two earths; many of which, indeed, are pointed out in a subsequent memoir by these chemists, *On the Resemblance and the Difference of Strontian and Baryt;* namely, that muriate of baryt is not decompounded by pure alkalies, as muriate of strontian is; that muriate of strontian is decompounded by solution of baryt, &c.; and in short it appeared that strontian differs from baryt in a greater number of properties than those in which they agree.

Observations on the Nature and Treatment of Fevers which often prevail in France during the Autumn, and which are still very fatal in la Vendée. By M. PORTAL.——'The defenders of their country (says M. PORTAL) returned from La Vendée to Paris with a very violent fever, which killed most of them in a very short time.' Disssections were instituted on several of the dead bodies, but no light was thus obtained respecting the nature of fever, since no peculiar morbid appearances were remarked. As little information was gained from the history of symptoms; and with regard to the treatment, also, nothing new occurred. Ipecacuanha-vomits, given early in the fever, were found very serviceable, and were repeated eight or ten times at the interval of a few days.

Observations on the Complication of the Small-Pox with Herpetic Eruptions, and on the Continuation of the Use of Mercurials during the Course of that Disease. By M. DESESSARTZ. — This gentleman sets out with the erroneous statement, that the English physicians very generally exhibit mercurials in the natural and in the inoculated small pox; while the French are too timid to use these remedies. He asserts that, if during the use of mercury the small-pox should occur, this disorder is then regular in its stages, and milder than it might have been expected to be. On the other hand, when the small-pox supervened to herpetic eruptions, in which sudorfics, heating remedies, and vesicatories, were used to support the variolus eruption, and to prevent the retro-cession of the other cutaneous affection, this treatment never failed to occasion a most violent small-pox; which was often fatal, or followed by a very tedious convalescent state.

On the accession of the variolous fever, it was observed that erysipelatous and herpetic eruptions disappeared, and re-appeared eight days after the desiccation of the small-pox, or at some short period after it.

The total disappearance (says the author) of the erysipelatous eruption in one case, and of the herpetic in three others, and their re-appearance, shew that the small-pox is not liable to be mixed with the humour which produces those cutaneons disorders; and consequently that, by inoculation, two diseases cannot be introduced.

When the small-pox supervenes in persons affected with *syphilis*, and who at the same time are taking mercury, the sores and discharges are very little altered; and the duration of the disease does not obviously vary, subsequently to the variola: but it was thought that the small-pox was milder than it otherwise would have been. It is important to know, that no danger is to be apprehended from the co-existence of the small-pox and syphilis.

It is scarcely necessary to remark that, if the author has no better evidence than the above-recited cases, no satisfactory practical conclusion can be drawn in favour of mercury in the small-pox: but he has promised farther details.

Memoir on the Use of Bouches à Feu in throwing Grenades in large Quantities. By M. Marescot.——The author of this paper is desirous of introducing a particular method of throwing grenades adopted in the allied armies, and in which he has found it difficult to instruct the French troops.

Experiments relative to the Circulation of the Sap in Trees. By M. Coulomb.——It is here conjectured, that the only circulation in trees is performed through parts near the central canal of the tree, and by an infinite number of horizontal medullary lines or rays.

Observations on the Bite of Mad Dogs inflicted on Men. By M. Sabatier.——This paper contains some cases in addition to those which the author has formerly related on the subject of these fatal accidents.

A soldier was bitten by a mad dog near the great angle of the right eye, and near the lips of the same side. In 42 days he died of hydrophobia; although the celebrated medicine of *Viroflay* had been exhibited, and mercurial frictions, bathing, purging, and bleeding, had been employed. On the most accurate dissection, nothing morbid was discovered; not even in the pharynx and œsophagus.

An officer bitten by a mad dog was taken ill three months afterward, and died hydrophobic. In his body, also, nothing morbid was discovered on dissection.

A third case was treated by applying to the wounded part the actual cautery, and the patient continued well.

Several other persons, bitten by a mad dog, used the Tonquin medicine, and sea-bathing, without any complaint supervening: but in one the hydrophobia came on, and proved fatal. On dissection, nothing morbid was found but a slight inflammation of the pharynx, œsophagus, and stomach.

Another officer, who had been bitten, was cauterized as before mentioned, and no complaint followed.

Other accounts are given of persons bitten who escaped, after having had the parts cut out, or cauterized.

Although these cases are in favour of the efficacy of the measures employed, it is proper to consider them as equivocal; since one person was bitten in twenty-five places by a dog without any subsequent disease, although another bitten by the same dog, in one place only, became hydrophobic and died.

Experiments on the two States of Phosphate of Lime, on the Analysis of Bone, and on the Preparation of Phosphorus. By M. M. Fourcroy and Vauquelin.——This is a very interesting paper, and merits more particular attention than our limits allow.—The difference between acid obtained from burning phosphorus, and acid from bones, is shewn not to depend merely on the latter retaining a small proportion of phosphate of lime. Solution of bone in muriatic acid, on spontaneous evaporation, deposits a white scaly matter, which is soluble in water, fusible into glass, scarcely soluble in alcohol, and readily soluble in water with the addition of any acid. On adding to the aqueous solution, volatile or fixed alkali, or lime water, a copious deposition of *earth of bone* or *phosphate of lime* takes place; and oxalic acid causes a precipitate of oxalate of lime: so that phosphoric acid remains in the fluid quite pure. This precipitate from muriatic acid is, then, *acidulous phosphate of lime.*

Phosphate of lime in bone cannot be completely decompounded by acids, any more than sulphate of potash by nitric acid, or various mineral neutral salts by tartarous acid.

Acidulous phosphate of lime in solution suffers no decomposition from the addition of sulphuric, nitric, muriatic, phosphoric, or even acetous acid.

Phosphate of lime, above mentioned, consists of 0,41 phosphoric air, and 0,59 of lime; and acidulous phosphate consists of 0,54 of acid, and 0,46 of lime. Hence, bone earth yields, by means of acids, only 0,24 of the 0,59 of lime which it contains; and 100 parts of earth of bone with sulphuric acid give, therefore, 0,76 acidulous phosphate of lime, which retain 0,59 of earth of bone, and 0,17 phosphoric acid for phosphorus with carbon. Hence, the acids not taking more than $0\left\{\frac{,24}{,40}\right.$ lime from any phosphate of lime, and there not being more than $0\left\{\frac{,17}{,40}\right.$ of phosphoric acid rendered free, it is evident that we cannot obtain (supposing no loss) one half the quantity of phosphorus contained in a given quantity of phosphate of lime; and therefore, instead of 0,16 of phosphorus in 0,41 of acid from 100 parts of phosphate of lime, or earth of bone, we only obtain 0,04 or 0,05, on account of the loss of one or two per cent. inevitable in waste. In course, we obtain not scarcely one fourth of the real quantity of phosphorus which exists in bone; to save expence, therefore, in making phosphorus, to 100 parts of earth of bone should be added 40 parts of concentrated sulphuric acid, or $\frac{2}{5}$ of the weight of earth of bone.

In order to decompound bone completely, compound affinities must be employed, or vegetable acids. Oxalic acid takes the lime away totally from acidulous earth of bone; and 100 parts of oxalate of lime contain 48 parts of lime. Hence, 100 parts of enamel of teeth were found to contain:

1. Lime, 43,3.
2. Phosphoric acid, 29,67.
3. Gelatin and water, 27,10.

A mode of obtaining the total quantity of phosphoric acid from bone, less expensive than by means of oxalic acid, is by adding nitrate or acetite of lead to the acidulous phosphate of lime, with 0,10 of phosphorus, instead of 0,5 in the old way. Hence it will be understood why vol-alkali, fixed caustic alkali, and lime, precipitate earth of bone from urine; and why acetite or nitrate of lead precipitates all its phosphoric acid, which decompounds not only phosphate of soda and of ammoniac, but of lime.

It is observed that *Rouelle* long ago discovered that the urine of horses does not contain phosphoric acid; and hence, from the combination of phosphoric acid with phosphate of lime, various diseases of the bones may be understood. From the abundance, also, of this acid in the fluids, various diseases may arise.

Chemical Considerations on the Effect of Mordants in dying Cotton Red. By M. CHAPTAL.——The beautiful red colour, called *Andrinople* red, is effected by means of a preparation of apparently a monstrously absurd farrago of ingredients, the colouring matter of which is madder; yet we know, from good authority, that at Manchester the most intelligent chemists have in vain tried to render the receipt more simple, and to employ more rational ingredients. The operations necessary to produce this colour cannot be performed in less than a month; there being employed successively soda, oil, gall nut, alumine, sumac, blood, gastric liquor, madder, soap, nitro-muriate of tin, &c.

A new attempt is made in the paper before us to reduce this complicated process to simple principles. Accordingly, the three principal mordants employed are *oil*, *gall nut*, and *alumine*, which are the most complicated that are known to be necessary in one process in dying.

Observations and Remarks on a Calf which remained in the Womb dead and untainted nearly 15 Months after the Time of calving. By M. HUZARD.——The calf died in the womb about the usual time of delivery; and the air being quite excluded it remained unputrified. Until the corpse changed its position in the womb, and while the cow was well fed, she grew fat, and was healthy. Similar cases have occurred, in which also the whole mass was absorbed, except the bones.

Observations on the Epigæa repens, Linn. with the Description of a new Genus. By M. VENTENAT.——For the details of this curious article, we must refer to the memoir itself.

Memoir on the Tables of Composition of Salts, and the Means of verifying the Proportions which they contain. By M. GUYTON.——The determination of the quantities which enter into the formation of compound salts is one of the most important and difficult points of chemistry. The tables of the three celebrated chemists, *Bergman*, *Wenzel*, and *Kirwan*, are at variance; and we are still in a state of great incertitude, respecting which of these tables is most worthy of our confidence. The present paper is not susceptible of abridgment with any advantage.

Remarks on the Operation for the Stone with the Lithotome caché; and on the judgment given by the Academy of Surgery respecting that Operation, in the 3d Vol. of their Memoirs. By M. SABATIER.—The author here details his reasons for preferring the operation with the *Lithotome* (*Bistonry*) *caché*, which he considers as an invention that does honour to human nature.

On the Organ of Vision of the Fish called Cobitis Anableps, or Great Eyes of Cayenne. By M. LACEPÈDE.——This animal inhabits some parts of South America, particularly the environs of Surinam. It is of the same genus as the *cobitis fossilis*, or *living barometer*, which is preserved in vessels full of water as a matter of curiosity, to observe its motions.

Much conjecture is here offered: but it seems to be proved that, if the *anableps has not two eyes on each side*, it has in each eye, two cornea, two cavities for the aqueous humour, two irides, two pupils, and two foci for the luminous rays.

On the Urine of the Horse compared with the Urine of Man; and on several Parts of the Animal Oeconomy. By M. M. FOURCROY and VAUQUELIN.——M. *Rouelle* formerly announced that the urine of the camel and of the cow contains muriate of potash, sulphate of potash, calcareous earth, volatile salt, and no phosphoric acid. He also asserted, that the urine of the horse did not contain the acid salt which exists in that of the camel and the cow.

The horse's urine turns violet syrup, green;—and it effervesces rapidly with acids. The result of the analysis is that it contains,

1. Carbonate of lime - -	0,011	0,060
2. Carbonate of soda - -	0,009	
3. Benzoate of soda - -	0,024	
4. Muriate of potash - -	0,009	
5. Vegetable and animal matter, of a peculiar kind	0,007	
6. Water and mucilage - -	0,940	
	1,000	

Urine of the horse, which has been altered by fermentation, on standing, differs from fresh urine, 1. In not containing carbonate of lime, nor carbonate of soda, nor that singular crystallizable matter which is afforded by nitric acid. 2. In containing acetous acid, and carbonate of ammoniae.

First Memoir on some Anomalies in the Play of Affinities, and particularly those which take place on account of the Change of Temperature, and the separation of Caloric. By M. GUYTON.——This is an interesting paper, but we cannot undertake to abridge it.

Observations on the Sublimation of Mercury, in the Vacuum of the Barometric Tube, produced by the Rays of the Sun. By M. CHARLES MESSIER.——We must also decline any analysis of this memoir.

Memoir on Blue Cloth, dyed in the Wool, and manufactured from the Wool obtained from Sheep of the pure Spanish Breed, kept at Croissy-sur-Seine in 1786. By M. CHANORIER.——Prejudices having existed in France, as well as in England, in favour of wool imported from Spain; and manufacturers being generally of opinion that it was impossible in other parts of Europe to obtain any of equal quality; Dr. Parry [*] in England, and M. CHANORIER in France, have endeavoured to rectify this injurious misapprehension. The latter procured from Spain the very best specimens of Spanish wool, known by the names of the *Pollard*, *Negrette*, and the *Infantado*; and he exhibited them, mixed with some specimens from his own fleeces, to the manufacturers. His wool, he tells us, was acknowleged to be equal to that which he had procured from Spain; and two manufacturers assured him that cloth manufactured from it is equal to any made from the best Spanish wool. He presented specimens of it to the Institute.

Observations on the Fabrication of the Acetite of Copper, or Verdegrise, Verditer, &c. By M. CHAPTAL.——This paper consists chiefly of minutiæ, which may be interesting to manufacturers, but not to general readers.

Observations on the Yellow Colour extracted from Vegetables. By M. CHAPTAL.——Of the three primitive colours employed in painting, *red*, *yellow*, and *blue*, the yellow is the only one which does not possess sufficient solidity to be regarded as a fixed colour, or good paint. M. CHAPTAL endeavours to shew by what means the matter, which causes yellow substances to afford a dull and dirty colour, may be separated, in order to afford a single and lively colour; and 2dly, how to render that colour as solid and permanent as *red* and *blue*. To effect these purposes, all extraneous matter mixed with the yellow matter is directed to be separated.

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[*] See Review for July last, p. 236.

MATHE-

MATHEMATICAL *and* ASTRONOMICAL MEMOIRS.

On the Secular Equations of the Motions of the Moon, of its Apogee, and of its Nodes. By M. DE LA PLACE.——It is known that, when the famous problem of the three bodies had been solved by *Clairaut*, *D'Alembert*, and *Euler*, these great geometricians applied the solution to the theory of the moon, and made the motion of the lunar perigee less by one half than observations assigned it. For a short time, the truth of the law of gravity varying inversely as the square of the distance was called into doubt; till *Clairaut*, extending the approximation, found that the law of gravity gave the motion of the moon's perigee exactly conformable to observation. The same law of gravity has not only rendered satisfactory the account of the motion of the moon's nodes and perigee, and of the inequalities of variation, erection, and annual equation, but it has indicated several less inequalities not easily to be discovered and ascertained by observation alone :—hence the tables of the moon, before inaccurate, have by calculation received a very considerable degree of precision.

The secular equation of the moon was first remarked by Halley; and Dunthorne and *Mayer* confirmed the observation. By the comparison of a great number of observations, *Delambre* and *Bouvard* have placed beyond doubt this secular motion. The mean motion of the moon has been accelerated since the time of the Chaldeans; which fact is farther confirmed by Arabian observations made in the tenth century, at Cairo, by Ibn Junis. Some time since, it was an object of considerable research with the mathematicians of the Continent, to render a satisfactory explanation of this phænomenon. They first endeavoured to assign its cause from the principle of gravitation: but, finding that the action of the sun and planets, the spheroidal form of the moon, &c. were inadequate to produce the acceleration of the lunar movement, they next inquired whether it might not arise from the action of comets, from the resistance of ether, or from the successive propagation of gravity. At length, M. DE LA PLACE discovered its cause; he found the secular equation of the moon to be due to the action of the sun on the moon, combined with the variation of the excentricity of the earth's orbit.—The explanation of this phænomenon, from the principle of gravity, is the most important confirmation of Newton's theory, since the time of *Clairaut*; and it alone is sufficient to transmit the fame of its author to the latest posterity.

Of the causes before mentioned, and proposed for the explanation of the acceleration of the moon's motion, the successive propagation of gravity appeared to M. DE LA PLACE the most natural; and he undertook the explanation on this principle:

but at that time the retardation of the motions of the nodes and apogee had not been ascertained by observation. This retardation, however, has since been determined: the same cause, then, should explain it, which explains the acceleration of the moon's motion: but, if the secular variations produced by the successive transmission of gravity be submitted to the same analysis, it appears that these variations are sensible only in the moon's mean motion, and alter neither the motion of the apogee nor that of the nodes. If the effect of the resistance of ether be calculated, it appears that no sensible equation is produced in the motion of the apogee, only a very small alteration in the excentricity of the orbit; nor any secular equation in the motion of the nodes, but a secular equation in the mean motion proportional to the square of the time.

The conclusion from these considerations is that the secular equation of the moon is not to be attributed to these causes; and since the alterations of the moon's three motions relatively to the sun, to its apogee, and to its nodes, are such as the law of gravity requires them to be, they evidently can have no other cause.—The present memoir of M. De La Place contains the '*analyse epineuse*,' which conducted him to his memorable results on the secular equations of the moon's motion.

On the Means of converting continued Circular Motions into alternate Rectilinear Motions. By M. Prony.——This philosopher remarks that the inventions chiefly used for converting circular into rectilinear motions are subject to the following inconveniencies:

1. They produce only a course of a determinate length; so that, in order to cause the resistance to describe a greater space, it is necessary either to construct another machine, or to add a returning motion; which is always a fault, and sometimes causes great embarrassment.

2. It is impossible, even in subjecting them to a determinate course, to give them an extent beyond certain limits; unless there result such dimensions for the machines, that they either cannot be executed or at least are very difficult to manœuvre.

M. Prony has endeavoured to construct a machine free from these inconveniencies: he has described it, with the aid of plates, in the present memoir; and he says that it is simple, unexpensive in its primitive construction, and that it may be kept in repair with little cost and difficulty.

New Theorem in Geometry, in which are assigned Portions of the Hemispherical Vault, of which the Solidity can be expressed by an Algebraic Formula. By Charles Bossut.——Near the close of the 17th century, *Viviani* proposed to the geometricians of his time, to cut two windows out of an hemispherical vault, in such a manner that the remaining part of the surface should be quadrable. The problem was thus solved by the two *Bernouillis*, and by *Leibnitz*: two cylinders, with bases equal to the circles described on the radii of a great circle as diameters, and perpendicular to the plane of such great circle, separate such portions from the spherical surface, that what remains is quadrable, and equal to twice the square described on the radius. This problem was more generally treated by *Euler*; who likewise shewed the method of constructing curves on the plane of a great circle, so that the cylinders insisting on them should cut the sphere in such a manner that the solidity of the remaining part should be expressible in an algebraic form. M. Bossut mentions that no mathematician has noticed that the two cylinders, which are used in the Florentine problem, take away from the sphere such portions, that what remains can be algebraically expressed: according to him, the remainder is equal to two-ninths of the cube of the sphere's diameter. The result is given without the analysis; which, however, we apprehend, it would not be difficult to exhibit.

Result of several Experiments undertaken for the Purpose of ascertaining the Quantity of Work which Men are able to furnish by their daily Labour, according to the different Modes in which their Strength is employed. By M. Coulomb.——This is an ingenious paper, and as satisfactory as can reasonably be expected on so uncertain a subject: but it is interesting, and worthy of consideration; since, as M. Coulomb observes, the human body is the most commodious machine which can be employed in complicated motions, which require nice and continual variations in the degrees of pressure, velocity, and direction.

The quantity of action, according to M. Coulmb, is what results from the pressure which a man exerts, multiplied by the velocity and the time of action; and if, in producing this quantity, the man undergoes each day as much fatigue as he can sustain without deranging his animal œconomy, this degree of action will measure the effect which he can produce in a day;—or, in other words, the weight which he can raise to a certain height during a day. The question to be determined, then, is, how are the different degrees of pressure, velocity, and time, to be combined, so that a man with equal fatigue may perform the greatest quantity of work.

This subject has been discussed by *Desaguliers* and *Daniel Bernouilli*: the latter of whom maintains that the fatigue is always proportional to the quantity of action. This opinion is proved by M. Coulomb, in the course of his memoir, to be erroneous; and he also with propriety animadverts on the experiments made by these two authors, which lasted only a few minutes, when men can exert themselves in a degree which would overpower them in an hour.

The different weights and heights in this memoir are given according to the new system of measures invented by the French. The method of ascertaining the *useful* effect of labour is this: by experiment, it appears that a man ascending a ladder, or flight of steps, without burthen, furnishes a quantity of action equal to 205 kilogrammes raised to the height of a kilometer: when he carries a burthen of 68 kilogrammes, the quantity of action is 109 kilogrammes; therefore 68 kilogrammes diminish the exertion which a man makes without a burthen, by a quantity equal to 96 kilogrammes.

Suppose the quantity of action lost to be proportional to the burthen; let P be any burthen; then $\frac{96}{68} P = 1.41 P$, the quantity of action lost by means of P: but 205 is the whole quantity of action when P equals o; therefore $205 - 1.41 P$ is the quantity of action furnished under the burthen P.

Let h be the height to which a man, with the weight P, can ascend in the course of a day; Ph then is the useful effect of his labour, and $(70 + P)h$ is the whole quantity of action furnished by a man whose weight is 70 kilogrammes;

$$\text{hence } (70 + h) P = 205 - 1.41 P$$

$$\therefore Ph = \frac{(205 - 1.41 P)}{70 + P}$$

To have the maximum Ph, put the differential of the expression equal o, whence $P = 53$ kilogrammes.

In the conclusion of his memoir, M. COULOMB says:

'I have been principally occupied in determining how much a burthen diminishes the quantity of action furnished by a man in a day. The experiments, which form the basis of this determination, have been regulated by the motions that are most natural and common to men; such as those of walking on a horizontal surface, or ascending steps. It appears to be an evident result that a man, ascending steps without any burthen, furnishes a quantity of action double that of a man loaded with the weight of 68 kilogrammes, nearly the burthen of those who carry faggots: but, since, in this manner of employing human strength, the burthen transported forms the useful labour, it follows that the useful labour of a man ascending with a burthen is only one-fourth of the action furnished by a man ascending unloaded; so that, if an unloaded man mounted a staircase, and, suffering himself to fall, should by some contrivance raise a weight equal to that of his own body, he would do as much work as four men carrying the same weight on their backs. This observation appears to me to be of the greatest importance to direct mechanics in the construction of machines to be moved by men, whose strength it it desirable always to employ in a manner the most advantageous for the useful effect.'

'I have next investigated the proportion between the total quantity of action furnished by men ascending steps without burthens, with that produced in ringing a bell, turning a handle, &c.; and I have found that a man who ascended stairs disencumbered could make at least twice as much exertion as in the other modes of employing his strength. The experiments which form the basis for the valuation of the quantity of action used in ringing, turning the handles of machines, &c. have constantly been made in great work shops; and I request those who may be desirous of repeating them, if they have not time to measure the results after many days of continued labour, to observe the workmen in different parts of the day without being noticed by them: since there cannot be too great caution in guarding against the errors of calculating either the velocity, or the duration of effective labour, from an observation of a few minutes.

'The results of all the preceding articles give quantities of action much inferior to those which the generality of authors adopt in calculating the effect of machines: but they are almost all grounded on experiments which have lasted only a few minutes, and were performed by select men. After such experiments, they have made their calculations on the supposition that the time of effective labour consisted of seven or eight hours: but in almost every kind of work, a man may exert, for the space of a few minutes, a quantity of action double or triple his mean exertion; he may even perform labour equal to his whole day's work, in two or three hours.'

M. Coulomb concludes his memoir by remarking that the valuation of the mean strength of men depends considerably on their choice: for instance, he found the mean exertion of grenadiers working in trenches to be one-third greater than that of ordinary soldiers. The food and climate have likewise considerable influence on the average quantity of action.

On the Eclipses of Stars, and especially on that of Aldibaron, observed on the 21st October 1793, by M. de Churruca, at Porto Rico; with the consequences which result. By Jerome Lalande.

On the total Eclipse observed 12th May 1706, in the Morning. By the Same.

Observations of the Eclipse of the Sun, 6th Messidor, Year 5, viewed at Paris from the Marine Observatory. By Charles Messier.

On the great Annular Eclipse observed in 1748. By Jerome Lalande.

Comet of the 6th Year discovered and observed by M. Messier.

These five papers do not admit of either analysis or remark.

We have now gone through this large volume, and have endeavoured to give as full an account of its various contents as it was in our power to insert: but we are aware that we have not been able to pay so much attention to some of them as those of our readers, to whom they may be particularly interesting, would have desired. A very considerable number of our pages have been assigned to this article, but still we found our allotment inadequate to admit a satisfactory analysis of every paper.

ART. XIII. *Collection of Engravings from ancient Vases of Greek Workmanship*, discovered in Sepulchres in the Kingdom of the two Sicilies, but chiefly in the Neighbourhood of Naples, during the Course of the Years 1789 and 1790. Now in the Possession of Sir WILLIAM HAMILTON, his Britannic Majesty's Envoy Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary at the Court of Naples. Vol. III. Published by Mr. *Wm. Tishbein*, Director of the Royal Academy of Painting. Printed at Naples, in Imperial Folio, and sold by Cadell, jun. and Davies, in London. Price 3l. 3s.

As we have already presented our readers with some account of the first and second volumes of this magnificent work *, little opportunity for remark is left to us on the present occasion. We have chiefly to announce that this third volume consists of copies of the paintings found on antient vases; which paintings were always intended to call to mind some particulars of worship, something relative to mythology or history, or some remarkable anecdote. The general subjects of these vases being taken from the history or mythology of the Greeks, there is every reason for concluding that they were manufactured by that people, and not by the Etruscans; and, in the first and second volumes, Sir W. HAMILTON declared himself to be decidedly of this opinion. To the publication before us, he has prefixed no other introductory remark, than the observation that these drawings will serve to throw great light on many curious and interesting passages in the history of antient Greece.

The plates, 60 in number, are accompanied by explanations from the pen of the Chevalier *Italinski*; which, in some instances, are sufficiently fanciful: but antiquaries, like poets, make great use of their imaginations. As we were turning over this collection, in which are exhibited various specimens of the dresses of Grecian ladies, we were rather surprized that, in this age of whim, more of them had not been copied by our modern belles, than merely the simple Grecian drapery which now prevails.—At the commencement of the volume, are some unexplained plates representing women with head-dresses in the shape of ewers, or vases, with the handle coming down behind, somewhat resembling the form which the modern chignon has been made to assume. In another instance, we observe a head-dress with small wings superadded.

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* See M. Rev. N. S. vol. xiv. p. 555. and vol. xxi. p. 535.

In the dedication to Lord Leicester, the President of the English Society of Antiquaries, Sir **WILLIAM HAMILTON** informs us that a fourth volume is preparing, which will complete the undertaking, and will contain the vases discovered in the antient Sepulchres of Sicily; particularly Girgento and Terra Nuova. All the remains of this description, which have been found in that island, bear a near resemblance to those that have been dug up in different parts of the kingdom of Naples: but the drawings on the Sicilian vases are in a much superior and more sublime style.

ART. XIV. *Histoire de Robert, surnommé Le Brave,* &c. *i. e.* The History of Robert, surnamed the Brave; a posthumous Work of LOUIS ELIZABETH DE LAVERGNE, *Comte* DE TRESSAN, &c. &c. 8vo. pp. 259. Dulau and Co. London. 1800.

IT is rather singular that, in the early part of life, a man should direct his attention to the grave and abstruse parts of science, and, towards the close of his days, should renounce the studies and researches of philosophy, in order to explore the regions of romance. Such, however, appears to have been the case with the celebrated Comte DE TRESSAN; who, at the age of 73, employed his time in abridging Amadis de Gaul, in translating Ariosto, and in writing tales of chivalry. The present volume was the last production of his pen, and is designed to shew by what means the high and distinguished rank of knighthood was to be obtained in the age of chivalry, when birth alone constituted no title to that honor. The tale is simple and interesting; the manners and characters of chivalry are well preserved; and the animated pictures, which frequently occur, shew that age had by no means impaired the freshness and vivacity of the author's imagination; though it might occasionally betray him into tedious garrulity, or lead him into an uninteresting minuteness of description.

The work is edited by the Abbé *de Tressan*, a son of the Count, and is dedicated to the late Emperor Paul 1st; whose great glory it was (in the language of the Abbé) '*once more to raise, with a power inferior only to that of heaven, the sacred standards of those illustrious knights, to whose valour seven ages of glory bear witness;*'—and, '*to possess a heart in which all the virtues of chivalry found a support truly worthy of them*'!!! Perhaps the Abbé might now wish to *revise* this adulatory language.

We shall present a brief specimen of this tale, in the relation of an interesting incident:

'Frequent attempts had been made to unfold the secret cause of the love for retirement which Azelais had always manifested; for her beauty was so great that the thoughts of her occupied the mind, the heart, and even the curiosity of all those who beheld her. Among a variety of conjectures, they had attributed it chiefly to the concern which she felt for the memory of a youth, who in the flower of his age had fallen in battle, and in so extraordinary a manner as to excite universal attention. He had been educated as a page in the palace of the Comte de Toulouse. His zeal to serve the beautiful Azelais had often been remarked; probably his heart could not resist the power of her charms; though the immense difference of rank, which separated him from her, had never permitted a ray of hope to enter his mind. His wit and numberless pieces of poetry, equal in plaintive tenderness to those with which love inspired the unhappy Sappho, had gained for him some celebrity: but the deep and silent grief, of which he seemed to be the prey, had rendered him still more the object of attention. In vain did his acquaintance attempt to divert his melancholy; and still more vainly did they seek to discover the secret which he kept impenetrable. Drooping daily, like a plant withering under the scorching rays of the Sun, he never appeared to revive till the Comte de Toulouse had resolved on a war with one of his neighbours. The youth then seemed to have no other passion than that of glory; and having obtained a command, he followed the standard of the Count. No sooner did he arrive in the presence of the enemy, than he darted like lightning into the midst of them; he was seen to fall on the first onset; and his men, who flew to his succour and repulsed the enemy, had only the melancholy satisfaction of carrying off his dead body.

'On depositing his remains in the camp, it was discovered that he was habited in armour which was fit only for shew, and was insufficient to protect him. Beneath his too slender breast-plate, were discovered, close to his heart, two plates of gold, suspended by a chain of the same metal. A stroke of a lance had partly separated them; and between them was found a drawing exquisitely designed, representing a solitary spot, and a rock, on which a Cupid had been interweaving flowers to form the letters A and Z; and was holding his *bandeau* over the rest of the name, as if to hide it from view. This emblem, and the youth's eagerness to meet death, recalled to mind a song which he was wont to sing, accompanied by his harp. Curiosity soon exerted all its efforts to penetrate a secret which was now hidden beneath the veil of death. The first letters of that name, which was apparently so dear to the departed youth, called to mind his former attachment to the service of the beautiful Azelais; and it was no longer doubted that, tormented by a hopeless passion, he had purposely sought relief in death.

'This story and these conjectures, being often repeated, at length reached the ears of Azelais. Her pure and innocent heart was a stranger to love; she trembled when she learnt, for the first time, that this passion could produce such melancholy effects; and from this period, her taste for retirement was formed.'

This volume will entertain young readers, while it may contribute to improve them in a knowlege of the French language; and it is recommended by a particularly handsome type, fine paper, and an elegant engraving of the author.

I N D E X

To the REMARKABLE PASSAGES in this Volume.

N. B. *To find any particular* Book, or Pamphlet, *see the* Table of Contents, *prefixed to the Volume.*

A

ACHÆAN League, observations on, 294.

Acid, nitrous, cases and observations respecting the external and internal use of, 137. Diseases in which cures have been effected by it, 140. Particular efficacy of it in the sea-scurvy, 142.

Acre, Mrs. Cowley's epic poem on the siege of, its right to the title of *Epic* questioned, 175. Extracts from the work, 176—179.

Africa (Southern), Mr. Barrow's travels into the interior of, 337. His account of the Cape of Good Hope, 338. Account of the Malay slaves; with an extraordinary instance of their revengeful temper, 341. Journey across the Arid desert, 343. Manners of the peasants, 344. Hottentot soup, 345. Mr. B. visits the court of the King of the Kaffers, 340.

Aikin, Dr. his advice to his son, on the subject of party-spirit, 152. On poetry, 153. On taste in gardening, *ib.* On the character of Ajax, 154. On evidence in matters of fact, *ib.* On the character of Cicero, 155. On our attachment to life, 156. On the respect due to our superiors, 157. On the taste for farming, *ib.* On Voltaire's Age of Louis XIV. 159. On taste for poetry, 160. On the best mode of encountering the evils of life, 161. On the experience of life, 162.

Air, dephlogisticated nitrous, curious researches concerning, 33.

Ajax, remarks on the idea generally formed of that hero, tending to raise his character to a more just estimation, 154.

Alfred, the subject of an epic poem, 1.

America, North, travels in, 9. Successful culture of vines there, 11. Prices of land, *ib.* Account of the western territory of New York, 12. Maple sugar, increasing manufacture of, 13. Wild animals less fierce than in other parts of the globe, *ib.* Women, among the Indians, labour more in the field than the men, 14. Dignity of the chieſtains, 15. Soil excellent, 16. Niagara, 19. Canadas, 21. Massachusetts, 23. Boston, *ib.*—24.

Anacreon, critical observations on his odes, 404. New English translation of, 405—409.

Annuities, laws and precedents relative to, 203.

Antiquities. See *Hamilton.*

Atheism, as charged on the leaders in the French revolution, observations on, 87. Political ill effects of atheism in a state, 496.

Authority, in matters of opinion, remarks on, 153.

B

Barrington, Mr. his account of himself, and of the state of the

colony at New South Wales, 218.
Baryt. See *Fourcroy*.
Bayen, M. notices of the life and writings of, 527.
Beaumont, Mr. his travels from France to Italy, through the Alps, 166. Route described, 168. Specimen of his talents for description, 170. Journey through the Lepontine Alps, 172. Traverses Switzerland, 174. Favourable account of the inhabitants, *ib.*
Beddoes, Dr. See *Acid, nitrous*.
Belligerent powers, rights and claims of. See *Powers*.
Bere, Rev. Mr. his controversy with Mrs. H. More, concerning the management of the Sunday-school at Blagdon, 214, 215. 445, 446.
Biography and history, general observations on, 158.
Birds, their flights *at sea*, how far useful to seamen, in ascertaining distances from unseen land, 508.
Blagdon-controversy. See *More*. See *Bere*.
Blood, circulation of, curious remark on its invisibility, 288.
Bonaparte, observations on his annihilation of the French directory, 85. Apology for that revolution, 86. His exploits in Germany, 248. Manner of his reception at Paris, after the peace of Campo Formio, 240. Supposed origin of the grand expedition to Egypt, *ib.* His assumed regard for Mahometanism, while commanding in Egypt, defended, 479.
Bone, analysis of. See *Fourcroy* and *Vauquelin*.
Bones, tumefaction of, case of, 527.
Bossut, M. his new theorem in geometry, 538.
Botany Bay. See *Barrington*.
Bryant, Mr. his observations on the topography of Troy, answered by Mr. Morritt, 282. See also *Francklin*.
Burmann, Professor. See *Report*.
Burns, observations on the proper treatment of, 316.

C

Calculi, urinary, enumeration of the patients in Luneville hospital, afflicted with this disorder, 527.
Calvin, said to have *saved* the catholic religion at the time of the reformation from *popery*, 465.
Campaigns of 1796 and 1797, in Germany and Italy, and of 1799 in Switzerland, Holland, and Italy, 247—261—365. Obs. rel. to the expedition to Holland, 368. Respectable mention of Gen. Abercrombie, 369. Conduct of the Russians, 370. Return of the British troops, 373.
Campbell, Dr. George, memoirs of, 263. His religious sentiments, 264. His valuable lectures on ecclesiastical history, 265, 391.
Carlisle, Earl of, his laudable view of reforming our English drama, 325. Account of his tragedy of *The Step-mother*, 325.
Catherine, Empress of Russia, her insatiable ruling passions, 61. Her crimes considered as those of her high station, rather than of her heart, *ib.* Remarkable apostrophe to her memory, 62. Her favourites, *ib.*
Catholic religion, controversies rel. to, 95. The question concerning the emancipation of the catholics of Ireland considered, *ib.* Account of the catholic priests since the revolution, 386. See also *Calvin*.
Chanorier, M. his remarks on blue cloth manufactured from Spanish wool, 537.
Chaptal, M. on the effect of mordants in dying cotton red, 534. On the yellow colour extracted from vegetables, *ib.* On the fabrication of verdegrise, *ib.*
Charles II. account of an entertainment given to, by the society of Lincoln's Inn, 149.

INDEX.

China, code of penal laws there, 25. Compared with our own, 26, 27.

Christianity, calculated to promote the happiness of man, as a social being, 205. Plain reasons for our belief of, 209.

Cicero, character of, 154. His oratory compared with that of Demosthenes, 481. Balance of the statement highly in favour of the eloquent Roman, 483. Personal sketch of, 489. His treatise on the duties of morality recommended for the instruction of youth, 490.

Clergy, their right to a seat in parliament considered, 437.

Clouet, M. his chemical report to the French National Institute, on the manufacture of iron and steel from the ore, and their mutual conversion of one into the other, 525.

Cobitis Anableps, or *Great Eyes*, a curious species of fish, 535.

Colours of thin transparent bodies, new obs. on, 413. Newton's ideas rel. to, considered, 417.

Conté, M, his newly invented Crayons, 526.

Cottages, for the poor, strongly recommended to the attention of country gentlemen, 275.

Coulomb, M. his experiments on the circulation of the sap in trees, 532. On the quantity of work which men may produce by labour, 539.

Cowper, Mr. the poet, account of verses addressed to him in praise of tobacco, 211.

Cow-pox, observations on, respecting inoculation for, 315.

Cromwell, Oliver, his great respect to Wykeham's chapel at Winchester, 59.

Cuvier, M. his memoir on the different species of the elephant, 528.

D

Damberger's Travels, *damned*, 214.

Davy, Mr. his experiments on himself, relative to the dephlogisticated nitrous gas, 41. Satirically attacked on this subject, 217.

Demosthenes, his eloquence appreciated, 480. Less generally admired than Cicero, and why, 481.

Dennis, the critic, humorous anecdote of his antipathy to punning. 146.

Desessartz, M. on a complicated small-pox. 531.

Despotism, one great cause of national revolutions, 492.

Detonation, by percussion, experiments on, 529.

Dibutades, a Grecian potter, the first who formed likenesses of the human figure in clay, 164. Styled the Wedgwood of his time, *ib. the note.*

Diderot, his violent controversy with *La Grange* concerning the merits of Seneca, 490. His furious attack on *Rousseau*. *ib.*

Directory, Executive, of France, complete history of, 476. Conduct of censured, 477. Their treatment of *Pichegru* unjustifiable, 478.

Du Petit Thouars. See *Thouars*.

Dutch, the late surrender of their fleet to the English, importance of that event, 374.

E

Easter-Island, some account of, 498.

Education, of children, *pithy sentences* relative to, 97. The improvement of education farther considered, 200. The subject of natural history recommended, 201. Literary play-things recommended, 202, 225.

Elephant, two different species of, 528. Unknown species of, in a fossil state, *ib.*

Ellsburg, town of described, 516.

Eloquence of the antients, curious remarks relative to, 48. See alſo *Cicero*.

Engravings, from antient Greek vases. See *Hamilton*.

Eudora, the daughter of the Grecian potter, her poetic epistle to her lover, whose likeness she had copied from his shadow, while he slept, 164.

F

Farming, remarks on the taste for, 157. Monopolizing of farms disadvantageous to land-owners and the public, 198. Appropriation and inclosure of commons considered, *ib.*

Fevers, autumnal, nature and treatment of, 530.

Fleurieu, M. his account of *Marchand*'s voyage round the world, 497. His heavy charges against the English, 500. His new division of the globe into continents and great islands, 501—508.

Fourcroy and *Vauquelin*, M. M. on detonation by percussion, 529. On the properties of baryt, 530. On several chemical points, 532. On the urine of the horse, compared with that of man, 535.

France, sketches of the manners and opinions prevailing in the republic of, 82. French account of their late expedition into Palestine, 84. Observations on the revolution of the 19th Brumaire, 85. On the charge of Atheism brought against the leaders, &c. 87. Mr. Beaumont's travels in France, 166. Pamphlets relative to the politics of Great Britain and France, 333. See also *Henault*. See *Directory*. Royalists in France, different classes of, 495. See also *Robespierre*, &c. Report of the National Institute, on the measurement of the meridian of France, 524. Observations on the autumnal fevers prevalent in France, 532.

Francklin, Capt. his observations on the plain of Troy, 284.

Freedom of Inquiry, recommended in a sermon at Bristol, 222.

G

Garrick, David, anecdote relative to his admirable performance of Abel Drugger, 146.

Gas, nitrous. See *Air*.

Geneva, its merits as the nursery of freedom, and highly favourable to the best cultivation of the human mind, 450.

Geography, oriental, curious particulars relative to, by an Arabian writer of the 10th century, 31.

Geometry, new theorem in, 538.

Germany, statistical view of the states of, respecting their extent, population, commerce, &c. 466.

Guinea, French, able to furnish France with spices, &c. 528.

Guyton, M. on the composition of salts, 535. On anomalies in the play of affinities, 536.

H

Hager, Dr. his Picture of Palermo translated by Mrs. Robinson, 67. Descriptive extracts from, 68.

Hamilton, Sir W. his third volume of Engravings from antient Greek Vases, 542.

Harpe. See *La Harpe*.

Haukal, Ebn, an Arabian, his account of Oriental geography, 28. His itinerary, 30. Curious passages from, 31.

Hawkesworth, Dr. anecdote relative to, 146.

Haygarth, Dr. his observations and experiments on the power of the imagination, and on the use of Tractors, 420. Mr. Perkins's defence of his Tractors, 423.

Henault, President, his critical history of the establishment of the Franks in Gaul, supposed to be authentic, 461. Researches into the earliest account

count of the Gaulish history, 463. Miscellaneous articles selected from the learned President's work, *ib.* Discovery of the tomb of Childeric, 464. Coincidences and differences between Pres. *Henault*'s notions, and those of Abbé *Dubos*, 465.

Herrings, astonishing shoals of, on some parts of the Swedish coast, 516.

Historians, Greek and Roman, the first class of characterized, and their merits appreciated, 485. The second class, 480. Individually noticed, *ib.*

Hogarth, Mr. account of a valuable engraving of his portrait, from a bust by Roubiliac, 143. Graphic *illustrations* respecting the humourous works of Hogarth, 144.

Holland, expedition to. See *Campaigns*.

Horses, urine of, compared with that of man, 535. See also *Vertigo*.

Hottentots, account of, 344. Mr. Barrow's visit to the court of the Kaffers, *ib.*

Huzard, M. his obs. on a calf which lay *dead*, but unputrified, in the body of its mother, fifteen months, 534.

I and J.

Jefferies, Judge, anecdote rel. to his picture by Kneller, 148.

Indians, of North America, incapable of complete civilization, 120.

Inquiry. See *Freedom*.

Insurances, marine, law of, practically considered, 204.

Ireland, political controversies relative to, 95. Droll ballad relative to, 109.

Irides, or coronæ, which appear contiguous to the sun, moon, &c. account of, 279.

Iron, curious account of the conversion of into steel, 525.

Jussieu, M. See *Martin*.

K

Kaffers, or Caffres, account of, 349.

Knowlege, the general diffusion of, one great cause of revolutions in states, 492.

L

Labour of man, curious philosophical and mathematical observations on, 539.

La Cepède, M. on the fish called *Cobitis Anableps*, 535.

La Croix, M. his Elements of Algebra presumed to be a work much wanted by the lovers of that science, 470. The publication commended, 471. Extracts, 473.

La Grange, M. his dispute with *Diderot* concerning the character of Seneca, 490. See also *Le Gendre*.

La Harpe, M. de, his lectures on antient and modern literature, curious articles noted in and selected from his third volume, 480. His secession from his old friends, the modern philosophers, or revolutionists, 486. His *own* philosophical ideas, 487.

La Lande, M. astronomical papers by, in the Memoirs of the National Institute, 541.

La Place, M. on the secular equations, &c. of the moon, 537.

Latocnaye, M. his *promenade* in Sweden and Norway, 515. His account of Gottenburg, 516. Visits Upsal, 521. Descends into the silver mines, *ib.* Rambles into Norway, 522.

Le Gendre and *La Grange*, M. M. their report on two memoirs of analysis, 524.

Life, best mode of encountering the evils of, 161.

Literature, miscellaneous, less abundant with the antients than with the moderns, 491.

Longevity, human records relative to, 443.

Louis XIth, formed by nature for a tyrant, 493. A skilful one, however, *ib.*

——— XIV. a systematic tyrant, *ib.* Fatal effects of his erroneous measures, 494.

M

Maclaurin, Mr. his drollery in exploding the decision of dubious questions by *vote*, 103.

Mad-dogs, observations on the bite of, 532.

Mail-robbery, a supposed event of that kind made the foundation of an entertaining novel, 221.

Malay tongue, grammar of, 424.

Malta, account of, 296. Knights of, account of that order, and its history, 296.

Marchand, M. his circumnavigation of the world, 496. His useful nautical remarks on the several parts of his voyage, and the places at which he touched, 497—508. See also *Fleurieu*.

Marrow, spinal, observations on a motion remarkable in, 529.

Marriage and divorce, inquiry into the Scripture doctrine of, 91—92. Thoughts on the frequency of divorces, 99.

Marsh and Belsham, political controversy between those gentlemen, 333.

Martin, M. his memoir on the culture of spice-trees in French Guiana, 528.

Meista, Henry, a Swiss, his letters from England, 354. His remarks on our dramatic exhibitions, 355.

Messier, M. astronomical papers by, in the Memoirs of the National Institute, 541.

Metrical system, report on the measures of the meridian of France, 524.

Middleton, Dr. strictures on his Life of Cicero, 155.

Monastery, popish, said to be erected in Dorsetshire, 436. The edifice, &c. described, 437. The canonization of the founder satirically exposed, *ib.*

Monuments. See *Sepulchral*.

Moon. See *La Place*.

More, Mrs. Hannah, controversy between her and Mr. Bere, relative to the management of the sunday-school at Blagdon, 214. 445—447. See also *Bere*, *Blagdon*, &c.

Morgan, Mr. his alarming view of the public finances, 442.

Mysor, historical account of the rajahs of, 231. Their happy restoration, in consequence of the death of Tippoo Sultaun, 233.

N

Neutral vessels, under convoy, inquiry concerning the *visitation* of, 179. Controversy rel. to the conduct of our cruizers, and the High Court of Admiralty, 180—189.

——— Nations. See *Powers*.

Newton, Sir Isaac, how far desirous of being admired, 154. His doctrine of light and colours examined, 415.

Norfolk, a sailor's rambles in, 387. Favourable character of the inhabitants, *ib.* Pleasing view of Norwich, 388. Husbandry of the farmers, &c. 389. Culture of turnips, *ib.*

Notices, from the Memoirs of the National Institute, relative to M.M. *Pelletier* and *Bayen*, 527.

O

Oak-gall, not a fruit, but an excrescence, 289.

Opie, Mrs. her genius for poetry exemplified, 164.

Orford, Lord, his idea on the question whether the garden of Eden, as described by Milton, was the prototype of modern landscape gardening, 153.

Oxide, nitrous. See *Air*.

P

Paris, *Mercier*'s new picture of, 384. Account of the catholic priests, 386.

INDEX.

Paul, Emperor of Russia, traits of his character, 63.

Pelletier, M. notices of the life and writings of, 527.

Persian poetry, specimens of, 124. The compositions of Hafiz particularly commended, *ib.*

Perspective, elements of, 46.

Phœnix fire-office, patriotic conduct of, in the relief of the poor, 100.

Phosphate of lime. See *Fourcroy.*

Phosphorus. See *Fourcroy.*

Pichegrew, Gen. ill treated by the French Directory, 478.

Plague, not contagious, 317.

Pliny, the Younger, his *eloquence* too highly tinctured with wit, 484. His panegyric on Trajan praised for its integrity, 485.

Poetry, Epic, compared with the dramatic species, 1. Persian poetry favourably displayed, 123. Specimen of the beautiful gazels, or love-songs, of Hafiz, *ib.* Remarks on the *perfection of Poetry*, 153. Observations on the advantages of a taste for poetry, 160.

Portal, M. on the spinal marrow, 529. On autumnal fevers, 530.

Powers, of government, neutral and belligerent, rights and duties of, in maritime affairs, 307.

Predestinarianism severely attacked, 215.

Pride, of birth, satirically represented, 44.

Prize-law, publications rel. to, 328, 329.

Prophecies, view of those in the sacred writings which have been fulfilled, and are now fulfilling, 291.

Prophecy, divine origin of illustrated, 381.

Prony, M. on circular and rectilinear motions, 538.

Q

Quack-Doctor, droll story of, by Peter Pindar, 106.

Quakers, defence of, as a society of *Friends*, 207. Their articles of *Faith* vindicated, 208.

R

Rambles of a Frenchman. See *Latocnaye.*

Rattle-Snake, cure for the bite of, in South Carolina, 115.

Reformation, thoughts on, 101.

Regnier, M. on the project of a metallic thermometer, 524.

Report on two memoirs of analysis, by M. M. *Le Gendre* and *La Grange*, 524.

——— on the project of a metallic thermometer, *ib.*

——— on the measure of the meridian of France, *ib.*

——— of the results of experiments on iron and steel, 525.

——— concerning the vertigo of post-horses, 527.

——— on the invention of crayons. See *Conté.*

——— on the culture of spice-trees in Guiana, 528.

Revolutions, political, their origin and effects considered, 492.

Richard, M. his memoir on the introduction of useful plants into the French colonies, 528.

Robespierre, his scheme for converting the rising generation into children of the republic, 494.

Romans of the Augustan age, compared with the antient Athenians, and much preferred to the Greeks, 482.

Russia, not subject to revolutions, 64. Character of the Russian peasantry, *ib.*

S

Sabatier, M. his memoir on a fracture of the *sternum*, 528. On the bite of mad dogs, 532. On the operation for the stone, 535.

Saussure, M. his general character as a man of science, 450. His marriage and family history, 453. His early taste for electricity, *ib.* Travels for health and improvement, *ib.* Intercourse with learned men, 454.

His

His *Essays on Hygrometry*, 456. Improvement of air balloons, 457. His description of the *Cyanometer*, *ib.* Commences the publication of his *Travels among the Alps*, 458. His projects for a theory of the earth, 459. His declining health and death, 460.
Seneca, his literary character controverted, 492.
Sepulchral monuments, obs. rel. to those of the antients, 49—55. English monuments, 57. William of Wykeham, a great artist as well as patron of this branch of architecture, 58. His chapel at Winchester, 59.
Sheep, obs. on the *rot* in, 287. 289. See also *Wool.*
Small-pox, obs. on, when complicated with other disorders, 531.
Steel, on the manufacture of, from iron, and from iron-ore, 526.
Sternum, case of a fatal accident to that part, 528.
Stockholm, the capital of Sweden, romantic situation of, 519.
Stone. See *Sabatier.*
Strontian. See *Baryt.* See *Fourcroy* and *Vauquelin.*
Suworrow, Marshal, his unfortunate campaign in Switzerland, 255. His conduct in Italy, 257.
Swedes, their manners peculiarly contrasted with those of the English, 519.
Switzerland, memorable campaigns in, *anno* 1799, the inactivity of the Austrians, and the disasters of the Russians, 250.

T

Thouars, M. du Petit, character of, 12. 22.
Tippoo-Sultaun, origin and conduct of the war with, 225. His death and character, 229. Personal description of, *ib.* Happy consequences of his death, 230.
Tobacco, the culture of, in South Carolina and Virginia, less regarded than formerly, 116—118. *Nicotiana*, a poem, in praise of, addressed to the late Mr. Cowper, 211. Observations on the culture and commerce of this plant, 376.
Transparency of bodies, considered, 415.
Trees, observations on the diseases of, 529. On the circulation of the sap in, 532.
Trent, council of, observations on, 392. Progress of the reformation, 397.

V and U

Vauquelin, M. on the diseases of trees, 529. See *Fourcroy.*
Vertigo. in post horses, *report* concerning, 527.
Voltaire, remarks on his *Siècle de Louis XIV.* 159.
Urine. See *Calculi.* See *Horses.*

W

Washington, city of, founded on too grand a scale, 119.
Welsh language, remarks on its antiquity and its purity, 314.
Wool, for clothing, interesting account of the Spanish and other kinds of, 234. Practicability of producing, in the British isles, wool equal to that of Spain, 236. See also *Chanorier.*

Y

Yellow, colour, extracted from vegetables, obs. on, 536.

Z

Zouch, Mr. his illustration of some prophecies, 204.

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